



This is a digital copy of a book that was preserved for generations on library shelves before it was carefully scanned by Google as part of a project to make the world's books discoverable online.

It has survived long enough for the copyright to expire and the book to enter the public domain. A public domain book is one that was never subject to copyright or whose legal copyright term has expired. Whether a book is in the public domain may vary country to country. Public domain books are our gateways to the past, representing a wealth of history, culture and knowledge that's often difficult to discover.

Marks, notations and other marginalia present in the original volume will appear in this file - a reminder of this book's long journey from the publisher to a library and finally to you.

Usage guidelines

Google is proud to partner with libraries to digitize public domain materials and make them widely accessible. Public domain books belong to the public and we are merely their custodians. Nevertheless, this work is expensive, so in order to keep providing this resource, we have taken steps to prevent abuse by commercial parties, including placing technical restrictions on automated querying.

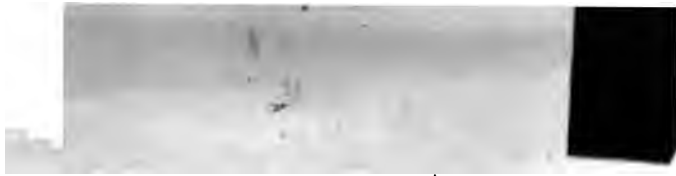
We also ask that you:

- + *Make non-commercial use of the files* We designed Google Book Search for use by individuals, and we request that you use these files for personal, non-commercial purposes.
- + *Refrain from automated querying* Do not send automated queries of any sort to Google's system: If you are conducting research on machine translation, optical character recognition or other areas where access to a large amount of text is helpful, please contact us. We encourage the use of public domain materials for these purposes and may be able to help.
- + *Maintain attribution* The Google "watermark" you see on each file is essential for informing people about this project and helping them find additional materials through Google Book Search. Please do not remove it.
- + *Keep it legal* Whatever your use, remember that you are responsible for ensuring that what you are doing is legal. Do not assume that just because we believe a book is in the public domain for users in the United States, that the work is also in the public domain for users in other countries. Whether a book is still in copyright varies from country to country, and we can't offer guidance on whether any specific use of any specific book is allowed. Please do not assume that a book's appearance in Google Book Search means it can be used in any manner anywhere in the world. Copyright infringement liability can be quite severe.

About Google Book Search

Google's mission is to organize the world's information and to make it universally accessible and useful. Google Book Search helps readers discover the world's books while helping authors and publishers reach new audiences. You can search through the full text of this book on the web at <http://books.google.com/>





Gift of

Mrs. Louise Berman



**STANFORD
UNIVERSITY
LIBRARIES**



PLUTARCH'S LIVES.

VOL. IV.



Plutarchus
"
PLUTARCH'S
LIVES,

TRANSLATED FROM
THE ORIGINAL GREEK,
WITH
NOTES CRITICAL AND HISTORICAL,
AND A
LIFE OF PLUTARCH.

BY JOHN LANGHORNE, D. D.
AND WILLIAM LANGHORNE, M. A.

IN SIX VOLUMES.
VOL. IV.

THE SIXTH EDITION, CORRECTED.

London:

Printed for G. G. and J. ROBINSON; F. and C. RIVINGTON;
W. J. and J. RICHARDSON; R. FAULDER; LONGMAN and REES;
VERNOR and HOOD; DARTON and HARVEY;
And J. MAWMAN.

1801.

J. Swan and Co. Printers, Gracechurch-Street.

PA 4374

A1

1801

v.4

PLUTARCH'S

LIVES.

SERTORIUS.

IT is not at all astonishing, that Fortune in the variety of her motions, through a course of numberless ages, happens often to hit upon the same point, and to produce events perfectly similar. For, if the number of events be infinite, Fortune may easily furnish herself with parallels in such abundance of matter: if their number be limited, there must necessarily be a return of the same occurrences, when the whole is run through.

Some there are, who take a pleasure in collecting those accidents and adventures they have met with in history or conversation, which have such a characteristic likeness, as to appear the effects of reason and foresight. For example, there were two eminent persons of the name of Attis*, the one a Syrian, the

* Pausanias, in his Achaica, mentions one Attis or Attes, the son of Calaus the Phrygian, who introduced the worship of the mother of the gods among the Lydians. He was himself under a natural incapacity of having children, and therefore he might possibly be the first who proposed that all the priests of that goddess should be eunuchs. Pausanias adds, that Jupiter, displeas'd at his being so great a favourite with her, sent a boar which ravaged the fields, and slew Attis, as well as many of the Lydians. We know nothing of any other Attis.

other an Arcadian, who were both killed by a boar. There were two Actæons, one of which was torn in pieces by his dogs, and the other by his lovers *. Of the two Scipios, one conquered Carthage, and the other demolished it. Troy was taken three times; the first time by Hercules, on account of Laomedon's horses; the second time, by Agamemnon, through means of the wooden horse †; the third, by Charidemus, a horse happening to stand in the way, and hindering the Trojans from shutting the gates so quickly as they should have done. There are two cities that bear the names of the most odoriferous plants, *Ios* ‡ and *Smyrna*, *Violet* and *Myrrh*, and Homer is said to have been born in the one, and to have died in the other. To these instances we may add, that some of the generals who have been the greatest warriors, and have exerted their capacity for stratagem in the most successful manner, have had but one eye; I mean Philip, Antigonus, Hannibal, and Sertorius, whose life we are now going to write. A man, whose conduct with respect to women, was preferable to that of Philip; who was more faithful to his friends than Antigonus; and more humane to his enemies than Hannibal: but though he was inferior to none of them in capacity, he fell short of them all in success. Fortune indeed, was ever more cruel to him than his most inveterate and avowed enemies; yet he shewed himself a match for Metellus in experience, for Pompey in noble daring, for Sylla in his victories, nay, for the whole Roman people in power; and was all the while an exile and sojourner among barbarians.

* Actæon, the son of Aristæus, was torn in pieces by his own dogs, and Actæon the son of Melissus, by the Bacchiadæ. See the Scholiast upon Apollonius, Book IV.

† These are all wooden instances of events being under the guidance of an intelligent Being. Nay, they are such puerilities as Timæus himself scarcely ever gave in to.

‡ Some suppose Ios to have been an island rather than a town. But if it was an island, there might be a town in it of the same name, which was often the case in the Greek islands.

The.

The Grecian general who, we think, most resembles him, is Eumenes of Cardia *. Both of them excelled in point of generalship; in all the art of stratagem, as well as courage. Both were banished their own countries, and commanded armies in others. And both had to contend with Fortune, who persecuted them so violently, that at last they were assassinated through the treachery of those very persons whom they had often led to victory.

Quintus Sertorius was of a respectable family in the town of Nursia, and country of the Sabines. Having lost his father when a child, he had a liberal education given him by his mother, whom on that account he always loved with the greatest tenderness. Her name was Rhea. He was sufficiently qualified to speak in a court of justice, and by his abilities that way gained some interest, when but a youth, in Rome itself. But his greater talents for the camp, and his success as a soldier, turned his ambition into that channel.

He made his first campaign under Cæpio †, when the Cimbri and Teutones broke into Gaul. The Romans fought a battle, in which their behaviour was but indifferent, and they were put to the rout. On this occasion Sertorius lost his horse, and received many wounds himself, yet he swam the river Rhone, armed as he was with his breast-plate and shield, in spite of the violence of the torrent. Such was his strength of body, and so much had he improved that strength by exercise.

The same enemy came on a second time with such prodigious numbers, and such dreadful menaces, that it was difficult to prevail with a Roman to keep his post, or to obey his general. Marius had then the

* In the Thracian Chersonesus.

† In the printed text it is *Scipio*; but two manuscripts give us *Cæpio*. And it certainly was Q. Servilius Cæpio, who, with the consul Cn. Mallius, was defeated by the Cimbri in the fourth year of the hundred and sixty-eighth olympiad, a hundred and three years before the Christian æra.

command, and Sertorius offered his service to go as a spy, and bring him an account of the enemy. For this purpose he took a Gaulish habit, and having learnt as much of the language as might suffice for common address, he mingled with the barbarians. When he had seen and heard enough to let him into the measures they were taking, he returned to Marius, who honoured him with the established rewards of valour. And during that whole war, he gave such proofs of his courage and capacity, as raised him to distinction, and perfectly gained him the confidence of his general.

After the war with the Cimbri and Teutones, he was sent as a legionary tribune, under Didius, into Spain, and took up his winter-quarters in Castulo *, a city of the Celtiberians. The soldiers living in great plenty, behaved in an insolent and disorderly manner, and commonly drank to intoxication. The barbarians seeing this, held them in contempt; and one night, having got assistance from their neighbours the Gyriscenians †, they entered the houses where they were quartered, and put them to the sword. Sertorius with a few more, having found means to escape, sallied out and collected all that had escaped the hands of the barbarians. Then he marched round the town, and finding the gate open at which the Gyriscenians had been privately admitted, he entered; but took care not to commit the same error they had done. He placed a guard there, made himself master of all quarters of the town, and slew all the inhabitants who were able to bear arms. After this execution, he ordered his soldiers to lay aside their own arms and clothes, and take those of the barbarians, and to follow him in that form to the city of the Gyriscenians. The people, deceived by the suits of armour and habits they were acquainted with, opened their gates, and sallied forth,

* A town of New Castile, on the confines of Andalusia.

† The Gyriscenians being a people whom we know nothing of, it has been conjectured that we should read *Oriscians*. The Oriscians were of that district. See Cellarius.

in expectation of meeting their friends and fellow-citizens in all the joy of success. The consequence of which was, that the greatest part of them were cut in pieces at the gates : the rest surrendered, and were sold as slaves.

By this manœuvre, the name of Sertorius became famous in Spain; and upon his return to Rome he was appointed quæstor in the Cisalpine Gaul. That appointment was a very seasonable one; for, the Marian war soon breaking out, and Sertorius being employed to levy troops and to provide arms, he proceeded in that commission with such expedition and activity, that, while effeminacy and supineness were spreading among the rest of the Roman youth, he was considered as a man of spirit and enterprize.

Nor did his martial intrepidity abate when he arrived at the degree of general. His personal exploits were still great, and he faced danger in the most fearless manner; in consequence of which he had one of his eyes struck out. This, however, he always gloried in. He said, others did not always carry about with them the honourable badges of their valour, but sometimes laid aside their chains, their truncheons, and coronets; while he had perpetually the evidences of his bravery about him, and those who saw his misfortune, at the same time beheld his courage. The people, too, treated him with the highest respect. When he entered the theatre, they received him with the loudest plaudits and acclamations: an honour, which officers distinguished for their age and achievements did not easily obtain.

Yet when he stood for the office of tribune of the people, he lost it through the opposition of Sylla's faction; which was the chief cause of his perpetual enmity against Sylla. When Marius was overpowered by Sylla, and fled for his life, and Sylla was gone to carry on the war against Mithridates, Octavius, one of the consuls, remained in Sylla's interest; but

Cinna, the other consul, whose temper was restless and seditious, endeavoured to revive the sinking faction of Marius. Sertorius joined the latter; the rather because he perceived that Octavius did not act with vigour, and that he distrusted the friends of Marius.

Some time after, a great battle was fought by the consuls in the *Forum*, in which Octavius was victorious, and Cinna and Sertorius having lost not much less than ten thousand men, were forced to fly. But, as there was a number of troops scattered up and down in Italy, they gained them by promises, and with that addition found themselves able to make head against Octavius again. At the same time Marius arrived from Africa, and offered to range himself under the banners of Cinna, as a private man under the consul. The officers were of opinion that they ought to receive him; only Sertorius opposed it. Whether it was that he thought Cinna would not pay so much attention to him, when he had a man of so much greater name, as a general, in his army; or whether he feared, the cruelty of Marius would throw all their affairs into confusion again, as he indulged his resentments without any regard to justice or moderation whenever he had the advantage. He remonstrated, that as they were already superior to the enemy, they had not much left to do; but if they admitted Marius among them, he would rob them of all the honour and the power at the same time, for he could not endure an associate in command, and was treacherous in every thing where his own interest was concerned.

Cinna answered, that the sentiments of Sertorius were perfectly right, but that he was ashamed, and indeed knew not how to reject Marius, when he had invited him to take a part in the direction of affairs. Sertorius replied, "I imagined that Marius had come of his own accord into Italy, and pointed out to you what in that case was most expedient for you to do;

“ do ; but, as he came upon your invitation, you
 “ should not have deliberated a moment whether he
 “ was to be admitted or not*. You should have re-
 “ ceived him immediately. True honour leaves no
 “ room for doubt and hesitation.”

Cinna then sent for Marius ; and the forces being divided into three parts, each of these three great officers had a command. When the war was over, Cinna and Marius gave in to every kind of insolence and cruelty. Sertorius alone neither put any man to death to glut his own revenge, nor committed any other outrage ; on the contrary, he reproached Marius with his savage proceedings, and applying to Cinna in private, prevailed with him to make a more moderate use of his power. At last, finding that the slaves, whom Marius had admitted his fellow-soldiers, and afterwards employed as the guards of his tyranny †, were a strong and numerous body ; and that, partly by order or permission of Marius, partly by their native ferocity, they proceeded to the greatest excesses, killing their masters, abusing their mistresses, and violating the children ; he concluded, that these outrages were insupportable, and shot them all with arrows in their camp, though their number was not less than four thousand.

After the death of Marius, the assassination of Cinna that followed it, and the appointment of young Marius to the consulship, contrary to the will of Sertorius and the laws of Rome, Carbo, Scipio, and Norbanus, carried on the war against Sylla, now returned to Italy, but without any success. For sometimes the officers behaved in a mean and dastardly manner, and sometimes the troops deserted in large bodies. In this case Sertorius began to think his presence of no importance, as he saw their affairs under a miserable direction, and that persons of the least understanding had most power. He was the more

* Qui deliberant desciverunt. TACIT.

† The *Bardiens*.

confirmed in this opinion, when Sylla, encamped near Scipio, and amusing him with caresses, under pretence of an approaching peace, was all the while corrupting his troops. Sertorius advertised Scipio of it several times, and told him what the event would be, but he never listened to him.

Then giving up Rome for lost, he retired with the utmost expedition into Spain; hoping, if he could get the government there into his hands, to be able to afford protection to such of his friends as might be beaten in Italy. He met with dreadful storms on his way, and when he came to the mountains adjoining to Spain, the barbarians insisted that he should pay toll, and purchase his passage over them. Those that attended him were fired with indignation, and thought it an insufferable thing for a Roman proconsul to pay toll to such a crew of barbarians. But he made light of the seeming disgrace, and said, "Time was the thing he purchased, than which nothing in the world could be more precious to a man engaged in great attempts." He therefore satisfied the demands of the mountaineers, and passed over into Spain without losing a moment.

He found the country very populous, and abounding in youth fit for war, but at the same time the people, oppressed by the avarice and rapacity of former governors, were ill-disposed towards any Roman government whatever. To remove this aversion, he tried to gain the better sort by his affable and obliging manner, and the populace by lowering the taxes. But his excusing them from providing quarters for the soldiers, was the most agreeable measure. For he ordered his men to pass the winter in tents without the walls, and he set them the example. He did not, however, place his whole dependance upon the attachment of the barbarians. Whatever Romans had settled there, and were fit to bear arms, he incorporated with his troops; he provided such a variety of warlike machines, and built such a number of ships,
as

as kept the cities in awe: and though his address was mild and gentle in peace, he made himself formidable by his preparations for war.

As soon as he was informed that Sylla had made himself master of Rome, and that the faction of Marius and Carbo was entirely suppressed, he concluded that an army would soon be sent against him under the conduct of an able general. For this reason he sent Julius Salinator, with six thousand foot, to block up the passes of the Pyrenees. In a little time Caius Annius arrived on the part of Sylla, and seeing it impossible to dislodge Salinator, he sat down at the foot of the mountain, not knowing how to proceed. While he was in this perplexity, one Calpurnius, surnamed Lanarius, assassinated Salinator, and his troops thereupon quitting the Pyrenees, Annius passed them, easily repulsing with his great army the few that opposed him. Sertorius, not being in a condition to give him battle, retired with three thousand men to New Carthage, where he embarked, and crossed over to Africa. The Maurusian coast was the land he touched upon; and his men going on shore there to water, and not being upon their guard, the barbarians fell upon them, and killed a considerable number; so that he was forced to make back for Spain. He found the coasts guarded, and that it was impracticable to make a descent there; but having met with some vessels of Cilician pirates, he persuaded them to join him, and made his landing good in the isle of Pityusa*, forcing his way through the guards which Annius had placed there.

Soon after, Annius made his appearance with a numerous fleet, on board of which were five thousand men. Sertorius ventured to engage him; though his vessels were small, and made rather for swift sailing than strength. But a violent west wind springing up, raised such a storm, that the greatest part of Sertorius's

* Now *Ivica*.

ships,

ships, being too light to bear up against it, were driven upon the rocky shore. Sertorius himself was prevented by the storm from making his way at sea, and by the enemy from landing; so that he was tossed about by the waves for ten days together, and at last escaped with great difficulty.

At length the wind abated, and he ran in among some scattered islands in that quarter. There he landed; but finding they were without water, he put to sea again, crossed the Straits of Gades, and keeping to the right, landed a little above the mouth of the river Bætis, which, running through a large track to discharge itself in the Atlantic Ocean, gives name to all that part of Spain through which it passes*. There he found some mariners lately arrived from the Atlantic Islands†. These are two in number, separated only by a narrow channel, and are at the distance of four hundred leagues‡ from the African coast. They are called the *Fortunate Islands*. Rain seldom falls there, and when it does, it falls moderately; but they generally have soft breezes, which scatter such rich dews, that the soil is not only good for sowing and planting, but spontaneously produces the most excellent fruits, and those in such abundance, that the inhabitants have nothing more to do than to indulge themselves in the enjoyment of ease. The air is always pleasant and salubrious, through the happy temperature of the seasons, and their insensible transition into each other. For the north and east winds which blow from our continent, in the immense track they have to pass, are dissipated and lost: while the sea winds, that is the south and the west, bring with them from the ocean slight and gentle showers, but oftener only a refreshing moisture, which imperceptibly scatters plenty on their plains. So that it is generally believed, even among the barbarians, that these are the

* *Bætica*, now *Andalusia*.

† The *Canaries*.

‡ In the original, *ten thousand furlongs*.

Elyfian Fields, and the Seats of the Blessed, which Homer has described in all the charms of verse*.

Sertorius hearing these wonders, conceived a strong desire to fix himself in those islands, where he might live in perfect tranquillity, at a distance from the evils of tyranny and war. The Cilicians, who wanted neither peace nor repose, but riches and spoils, no sooner perceived this, than they bore away for Africa, to restore Ascalis the son of Iphtha to the throne of Mauritania. Sertorius, far from giving himself up to despair, resolved to go and assist the people who were at war with Ascalis, in order to open to his troops another prospect in this new employment, and to prevent their relinquishing him for want of support. His arrival was very acceptable to the *Moors*, and he soon beat Ascalis in a pitched battle; after which he besieged him in the place to which he retired.

Hereupon Sylla interposed, and sent Paccianus with a considerable force to the assistance of Ascalis. Sertorius meeting him in the field, defeated and killed him, and having incorporated his troops with his own, assaulted and took the city of Tingis†, whither Ascalis and his brothers had fled for refuge. The Africans tell us, the body of Antæus lies there; and Sertorius, not giving credit to what the barbarians related of his gigantic size, opened his tomb for satisfaction. But how great was his surprize, when (according to the account we have of it) he beheld a body sixty cubits long‡. He immediately offered sacrifices, and closed up

* Odyss. 4.

† In the text *Tingene*. Strabo tells us, the barbarians call it *Tinga*, that Artemidorus gives it the name of *Linga*, and Eratosthenes that of *Lixus*.

‡ If it did not appear from Strabo that Plutarch has here only copied the fable of Gabinius concerning the stature of Antæus, we should be inclined to think that there was an error in the text, and that instead of *ἑξήκοντα* we should read *ἑξήκοντα*, referring the participle to *σωματι* immediately preceding. We the more readily give in to this opinion, as the antiques of Hercules and Antæus do not represent the latter more in proportion, than half a cubit higher

up the tomb ; which added greatly to the respect and reputation it had before.

The people of Tingis relate, that after the death of Antæus, Hercules took his widow Tinga to his bed, and had by her a son named Sophax, who reigned over that country, and founded a city to which he gave his mother's name. They add, that Diodorus, the son of Sophax, subdued many African nations with an army of Greeks, which he raised out of the colonies of Olbians and Myceneans settled here by Hercules.

These particulars we mention for the sake of Juba, the best of all royal historians ; for he is said to have been a descendant of Sophax and Diodorus, the son and grandson of Hercules.

Sertorius having thus cleared the field, did no sort of harm to those who surrendered themselves or placed a confidence in him. He restored them their possessions and cities, and put the government in their hands again ; taking nothing for himself but what they voluntarily offered him.

As he was deliberating which way he should next turn his arms, the Lusitanians sent ambassadors to invite him to take the command among them. For they wanted a general of his reputation and experience, to support them against the terror of the Roman eagles ; and he was the only one on whose character and firmness they could properly depend. Indeed, he is said to have been proof against the impressions both of pleasure and fear ; intrepid in time of danger, and not too much elated with more prosperous fortune ; in any great and sudden attempt as daring as any general of his time, and where art and contrivance, as well as dispatch, was necessary, for seizing a pass or securing a strong hold, one of the greatest masters of stratagem in the world ; noble and generous in rewarding great actions, and in punishing offences very moderate.

higher than the former. And if we are to believe, at the same time, that Hercules, after he had killed Antæus, had connections with his widow, that must confirm us in the altered reading.

It

It is true, his treatment of the Spanish hostages, in the latter part of his life, which bore such strong marks of cruelty and revenge, seems to argue that the clemency he shewed before, was not a real virtue in him, but only a pretended one, taken up to suit his occasions. I think, indeed, that the virtue which is sincere, and founded upon reason, can never be so conquered by any stroke whatever, as to give place to the opposite vice. Yet dispositions naturally humane and good, by great and undeserved calamities, may possibly be soured a little, and the man may change with his fortune. This, I am persuaded, was the case of Sertorius; when fortune forsook him, his disposition was sharpened by disappointment, and he became severe to those who injured or betrayed him.

At present, having accepted the invitation to Lusitania, he took his voyage from Africa thither. Upon his arrival he was invested with full authority as general, and levied forces, with which he reduced the neighbouring provinces. Numbers voluntarily came over to him, on account of his reputation for clemency, as well as the vigour of his proceedings. And to these advantages he added artifice to amuse and gain the people.

That of the hind was none of the least *. Spanus, a countryman who lived in those parts, happening to fall in with a hind, which had newly eaned, and which was flying from the hunters, failed in his attempt to take her; but, charmed with the uncommon colour of the fawn, which was a perfect white, he pursued and took it. By good fortune Sertorius had his camp in that neighbourhood; and whatever was brought to him taken in hunting, or of the productions of the field, he received with pleasure, and returned the civility with interest. The countryman went and offered him the fawn. He received this present like the rest, and at first took no extraordinary notice of it.

* Sertorius had learnt these arts of Marius.

But

But in time it became so tractable, and fond of him, that it would come when he called, follow him wherever he went, and learnt to bear the hurry and tumult of the camp. By little and little he brought the people to believe there was something sacred and mysterious in the affair; giving it out that the fawn was a gift from Diana, and that it discovered to him many important secrets. For he knew the natural power of superstition over the minds of the barbarians. In pursuance of his scheme, when the enemy was making a private irruption into the country under his command, or persuading some city to revolt, he pretended the fawn had appeared to him in a dream, and warned him to have his forces ready. And if he had intelligence of some victory gained by his officers, he used to conceal the messenger, and produce the fawn crowned with flowers for its good tidings; bidding the people rejoice and sacrifice to the gods on account of some news they would soon hear.

By this invention he made them so tractable, that they obeyed his orders in every thing without hesitation, no longer considering themselves as under the conduct of a stranger, but the immediate direction of Heaven. And the astonishing increase of his power, far beyond all they could rationally expect, confirmed them in that persuasion. For, with two thousand six hundred men, whom he called Romans (though among them there were seven hundred Africans who came over with him), and an addition of four thousand light-armed Lulitanians and seven hundred horse, he carried on the war against four Roman generals, who had a hundred and twenty thousand foot, six thousand horse, two thousand archers and slingers, and cities without number under their command; though at first he had twenty cities only. Nevertheless, with so trifling a force, and such small beginnings, he subdued several great nations, and took many cities. Of the generals that opposed him, he beat Cotta at sea in the

the Straits over against Mellaria; he defeated Phidius*, who had the chief command in Bætica, and killed four thousand Romans upon the banks of the Bætis. By his quæstor he beat Domitius and Lucius Manlius†, proconsul of the other Spain: he likewise slew Thoranius‡, one of the officers sent against him by Metellus, together with his whole army. Nay Metellus himself, a general of as great reputation as any the Romans then had, was entangled by him in such difficulties, and reduced to such extremities, that he was forced to call in Lucius Lollius from Gallia Narbonensis to his assistance, and Pompey the Great was sent with another army from Rome with the utmost expedition. For Metellus knew not what measures to take against so daring an enemy, who was continually harassing him, and yet would not come to a pitched battle, and who, by the lightness and activity of his Spanish troops, turned himself into all manner of forms. He was sufficiently skilled, indeed, in set battles, and he commanded a firm heavy-armed infantry, which knew how to repulse and bear down any thing that would make head against them, but had no experience in climbing mountains, or capacity to vie in flying or pursuing men as swift as the wind; nor could his troops bear hunger, eat any thing undressed, or lie upon the ground without tents, like those of Sertorius. Besides, Metellus was now advanced in years, and after his many campaigns and long service, had begun to indulge himself in a more

* Xylander has it *Didius*, which is agreeable to some manuscripts; Crusierus, upon conjecture only, reads it *Aufidius*. But as the learned Moses du Soul observes, there is a corrupt and insignificant *us* in the text.—Καλενομαχου *us* φιδιος *di*—and thence he concludes, with some degree of probability, that we should read *Furfidius*. Frienshem, in his Supplement to Livy (xc. 28), calls this general *Furfidius*; and he might do it upon the authority of some ancient manuscript of Plutarch.

† *Lafius* in the text again is corrupt. We read it Lucius Manlius from Orosius and Livy.

‡ Florus has it *Thorius*.

delicate

delicate way of living : whereas Sertorius was in the vigour of his age, full of spirits, and had brought his strength and activity to the greatest perfection, by exercise and abstemiousness. He never indulged in wine, even when he had nothing else to do ; and he had accustomed himself to bear labour and fatigue, to make long marches, and pass many successive nights without sleep, though supported all the while with mean and slender diet. By bestowing his leisure on hunting, and traversing all the country for game, he had gained such a knowledge of the impracticable as well as open parts of it, that when he wanted to fly, he found no manner of difficulty in it ; and if he had occasion to pursue or surround the enemy, he could execute it with ease.

Hence it was, that Metellus, in being prevented from coming to any regular action, suffered all the inconveniences of a defeat ; and Sertorius gained 'as much by flying, as he could have done by conquering and pursuing. For he cut his adversary off from water, and prevented his foraging. If the Romans began to march, he was on the wing to harass them ; and if they sat still, he galled them in such a manner, that they were forced to quit their post. If they invested a town, he was soon upon them, and by cutting off their convoys, as it were besieged the besiegers : infomuch that they began to give up the point, and to call upon Metellus to accept the challenge that Sertorius had given ; insisting that general should fight with general, and Roman with Roman ; and when he declined it, they ridiculed and abused him. Metellus only laughed at them, and he did perfectly right ; for, as Theophrastus says, " A general should die like " a general, and not like a common soldier."

He found that the Langobritæ were very serviceable to Sertorius, and perceived, at the same time, that he might soon bring them to surrender for want of water ; for they had but one well in the city, and an enemy might immediately make himself master of the
springs

in the suburbs, and under the walls. He therefore advanced against the town; but concluding he should take it within two days, he ordered his troops to take only five days' provisions with them. But Sertorius gave the people speedy assistance. He got two thousand skins and filled them with water, promising a good reward for the care of each vessel or skin. A number of Spaniards and Moors offered their services on this occasion; and having selected the strongest and swiftest of them, he sent them along the mountains, with orders, when they delivered these vessels, to take all useless persons out of the town, that the water might be fully sufficient for the rest during the whole course of the siege.

When Metellus was informed of this manœuvre, he was greatly concerned at it; and as his provisions began to fail, he sent out Aquilius* with six thousand men to collect fresh supplies. Sertorius, who had early intelligence of it, laid an ambush for Aquilius, and upon his return, three thousand men, who were placed in the shady channel of a brook for the purpose, rose up and attacked him in the rear. At the same time Sertorius himself charging him in front, killed a considerable number of his party, and took the rest prisoners. Aquilius got back to Metellus, but with the loss both of his horse and his arms; whereupon Metellus retired with disgrace, greatly insulted and ridiculed by the Spaniards.

This success procured Sertorius the admiration and esteem of the Spaniards; but, what charmed them still more, was, that he armed them in the Roman manner, taught them to keep their ranks, and to obey the word of command; so that, instead of exerting their strength in a savage and disorderly manner, and behaving like a multitude of banditti, he polished them into regular forces. Another agreeable circum-

* The common reading in the Greek text is *Aquinus*, but the manuscripts give us *Aquilius*.

stance was, that he furnished them with abundance of gold and silver to gild their helmets, and enrich their shields; and taught them to wear embroidered vests, and magnificent coats: nor did he give them supplies only for these purposes, but he set them the example*. The finishing stroke was, his collecting, from the various nations, the children of the nobility into the great city of Osca †, and his furnishing them with masters to instruct them in the Grecian and Roman literature. This had the appearance only of an education, to prepare them to be admitted citizens of Rome, and to fit them for important commissions; but in fact, the children were so many hostages. Meanwhile the parents were delighted to see their sons in gowns bordered with purple, and walking in great state to the schools, without any expence to them. For Sertorius took the whole upon himself, often examining besides into the improvements they made, and distributing proper rewards to those of most merit, among which were the golden ornaments furling down from the neck, called by the Romans *Bulle*.

It was then the custom in Spain, for the band which fought near the general's person, when he fell, to die with him. This manner of devoting themselves to death, the barbarians call a *libation* †. The other generals had but a few of these guards or knights companions; whereas Sertorius was attended by many myriads, who had laid themselves under that obligation. It is said, that when he was once defeated near the walls of a town, and the enemy were pressing hard upon him, the Spaniards, to save Sertorius, exposed themselves without any precaution. They passed him upon their shoulders, from one to another, till he had

* Alexander had taken the same method, before him, among the Persians. For he ordered thirty thousand Persian boys to be taught Greek, and trained in the Macedonian manner.

† A city in Hispania Tarraconensis.

‡ In Gaul, the persons who laid themselves under this obligation, were called *Soldarii*.

CÆs. de Bell. Gall. l. iii.

gained

gained the walls, and when their general was secure they then dispersed and fled for their own lives.

Nor was he beloved by the Spanish soldiers only, but by those who came from Italy too. When Perpenna Vento, who was of the same party with Sertorius, came into Spain with a great quantity of money, and a respectable army, intending to proceed in his operations against Metellus upon his own bottom; the troops disliked the scheme, and nothing was talked of in the camp but Sertorius. This gave great uneasiness to Perpenna, who was much elated with his high birth and opulent fortune. Nor did the matter stop here. Upon their having intelligence that Pompey had passed the Pyrenees, the soldiers took up their arms and standards, and loudly called upon Perpenna to lead them to Sertorius; threatening, if he would not comply, to leave him, and go to a general who knew how to save both himself and those under his command. So that Perpenna was forced to yield, and he went and joined Sertorius with fifty-three cohorts*.

Sertorius now found himself at the head of a great army; for, beside the junction of Perpenna, all the countries within the Iberus had adopted his interest, and troops were daily flocking in on all sides. But it gave him pain to see them behave with the disorder and ferocity of barbarians; to find them calling upon him to give the signal to charge, and impatient of the least delay. He tried what mild representations would do, and they had no effect. They still continued obstinate and clamorous, often demanding the combat in a very unseasonable manner. At last he permitted them to engage in their own way, in consequence of which they would suffer great loss, though he designed to prevent their being entirely defeated. These checks, he hoped, would make them more willing to be under discipline.

The event answered his expectation. They fought and were beaten; but making up with succours, he

* A cohort is the tenth part of a legion.

rallied the fugitives, and conducted them safe into the camp. His next step was to rouse them out of their despondence. For which purpose, a few days after he assembled all his forces, and produced two horses before them; the one old and feeble, the other large and strong, and remarkable besides for a fine flowing tail. By the poor weak horse stood a robust able-bodied man, and by the strong horse stood a little man of a very contemptible appearance. Upon a signal given, the strong man began to pull and drag about the weak horse by the tail, as if he would pull it off; and the little man to pluck off the hairs of the great horse's tail, one by one. The former tugged and toiled a long time to the great diversion of the spectators, and at last was forced to give up the point; the latter, without any difficulty, soon stripped the great horse's tail of all its hair*. Then Sertorius rose up and said, "You see, my friends and fellow-soldiers, how much greater are the effects of perseverance, than those of force, and that there are many things invincible in their collective capacity and in a state of union which may gradually be overcome when they are once separated. In short, perseverance is irresistible. By this means time attacks and destroys the strongest things upon earth. Time, I say, who is the best friend and ally to those that have the discernment to use it properly, and watch the opportunities it presents, and the worst enemy to those who will be rushing into action when it does not call them." By such symbols as these, Sertorius applied to the senses of the barbarians, and instructed them to wait for proper junctures and occasions.

But his contrivance with respect to the Characitani gained him as much admiration as any of his military performances whatever. The Characitani are seated beyond the river Tagus. They have neither cities nor villages, but dwell upon a large and lofty hill, in dens and caverns of the rocks, the mouths

* Horace alludes to this, l. ii. ep. 1.

of which are all to the north. The soil of all the country about it is a clay, so very light and crumbly, that it yields to the pressure of the foot, is reduced to powder with the least touch, and flies about like ashes or unflaked lime. The barbarians, whenever they are apprehensive of an attack, retire to these caves with their booty, and look upon themselves as in a place perfectly impregnable.

It happened that Sertorius retiring to some distance from Metellus, encamped under this hill; and the savage inhabitants imagining he retired only because he was beaten, offered him several insults. Sertorius, either provoked at such treatment, or willing to shew them he was not flying from any enemy, mounted his horse the next day, and went to reconnoitre the place. As he could see no part in which it was accessible, he almost despaired of taking it, and could only vent his anger in vain menaces. At last he observed, that the wind blew the dust in great quantities towards the mouths of the caves, which, as I said before, are all to the north. The north wind, which some call *Cæcias**, prevails most in those parts: taking its rise from the marshy grounds, and the mountains covered with snow. And as it was then the height of summer, it was remarkably strong, having fresh supplies from the melting of the ice on the northern peaks; so that it blew a most agreeable gale, which in the day-time refreshed both these savages and their flocks.

Sertorius reflecting upon what he saw, and being informed by the neighbouring Spaniards that these were the usual appearances, ordered his soldiers to collect vast quantities of that dry and crumbly earth, so as to raise a mount of it over against the hill. The barbarians imagining he intended to storm their strongholds from that mount, laughed at his proceedings. The soldiers went on with their work till night, and

* *Mediâ inter Aquilonem et Exortum Æquinoctialem.* Plin. l. ii. c. 47.

Narrant et in Ponto Cæcian in se trahere nubes. Ib.

then he led them back into the camp. Next morning, at break of day, a gentle breeze sprung up, which moved the lightest part of the heap, and dispersed it like smoke; and as the sun got up higher, the *Cecias* blew again, and by its violence covered all the hill with dust. Meantime the soldiers stirred up the heap from the very bottom, and crumbled all the clay; and some galloped up and down to raise the light earth, and thicken the clouds of dust in the wind; which carried them into the dwellings of the Characitani; their entrances directly facing it. As they were caves, and, of course, had no other aperture, the eyes of the inhabitants were soon filled, and they could scarce breathe for the suffocating dust which they drew in with the air. In these wretched circumstances they held out two days, though with great difficulty, and the third day surrendered themselves to Sertorius at discretion; who, by reducing them, did not gain such an accession of strength as of honour. For an honour it was to subdue those by policy whom his arms could not reach.

While he carried on the war against Metellus only, his success in general was imputed to the old age and inactivity of his adversary, who had to contend with a bold young man, at the head of troops so light, that they might pass rather for a marauding party, than a regular army. But when Pompey had passed the Pyrenees, and Sertorius took post against him, every art of generalship on both sides was exhausted, and yet even then it appeared, that in point both of attack and defence, Sertorius had the advantage. In this case, the fame of Sertorius greatly increased, and extended itself as far as Rome, where he was considered as the ablest general of his time. Indeed, the honour Pompey had acquired, was very considerable, and the actions he had performed under Sylla set him in a very respectable light, insomuch that Sylla had given him the appellation of *the Great*, and he was distinguished with a triumph, even before he wrote man. This made many of the cities, which were under

der the command of Sertorius, cast their eyes upon Pompey, and inclined them to open their gates to him. But they returned to their old attachment, upon the unexpected success that attended Sertorius at Lauron*.

Sertorius was besieging that place, and Pompey marched with his whole army to its relief. There was a hill at some distance from the walls, from which the city might be greatly annoyed. Sertorius hastened to seize it, and Pompey to prevent him; but the former gained the post. Pompey, however, sat down by it with great satisfaction, thinking he had been fortunate enough to cut Sertorius off from the town; and he sent a message to the Lauronites, "that they might be perfectly easy and sit quietly upon their walls, while they saw him besiege Sertorius." But when that general was informed of it, he only laughed, and said, "I will teach that scholar of Sylla," (so in ridicule he called Pompey), "that a general ought to look behind him, rather than before him." At the same time he shewed the besieged a body of six thousand foot in the camp which he had quitted in order to seize the hill, and which had been left there on purpose to take Pompey in the rear, when he should come to attack Sertorius in the post he now occupied.

Pompey, not discovering this manœuvre till it was too late, did not dare to begin the attack, lest he should be surrounded. And yet he was ashamed to leave the Lauronites in such extreme danger. The consequence was, that he was obliged to sit still and see the town lost. The people, in despair of assistance, surrendered to Sertorius, who was pleased to spare the inhabitants, and let them go free; but he laid their city in ashes. This was not done out of anger, or a spirit of cruelty (for he seems to have indulged his resentments less than any other general whatever), but to put the admirers of Pompey to the blush; while it was said among the barbarians, that though he was at

* A city of hither Spain, five leagues from Valencia.

hand, and almost warmed himself at the flame, he suffered his allies to perish.

It is true, Sertorius received many checks in the course of the war; but it was not where he acted in person, for he ever continued invincible; it was through his lieutenants. And such was his manner of rectifying the mistakes, that he met with more applause, than his adversaries in the midst of their successes. Instances of which, we have in the battle of Sucro with Pompey, and in that of Tutia* with both Pompey and Metellus.

As to the battle of Sucro, we are told it was fought the sooner, because Pompey hastened it, to prevent Metellus from having a share in the victory. This was the very thing Sertorius wanted; to try his strength with Pompey before Metellus joined him. Sertorius came up and engaged him in the evening. This he did out of choice, in the persuasion that the enemy, not being acquainted with the country, would find darkness a hindrance to them, whether they should have occasion to fly or to pursue. When they came to charge, he found that he had not to do with Pompey, as he could have wished, but that Afranius commanded the enemy's left wing, opposite to *him*, who was at the head of his own right wing. However, as soon as he understood that his left gave way to the vigorous impressions of Pompey, he put his right under the direction of other officers, and hastened to support that which had the disadvantage. By rallying the fugitives, and encouraging those who kept their ground, he forced Pompey to fly in great confusion, who before was pursuing: nay, that general was in the greatest danger: he was wounded, and got off with difficulty. For the Africans, who fought under the banners of Sertorius, having taken Pompey's horse, adorned with gold and other rich furniture, left the pursuit, to quarrel about dividing the spoil. In the

* Grævius conjectures, that we should read *Turia*, the *Turius* being a river which falls into the Sucro.

time, when Sertorius was flown from his right wing to succour the other in distress, Afranius overthrew all before him, and closely pursuing the fugitives, entered their camp with them, which he pillaged till it was dark; he knew nothing of Pompey's defeat, and was unable to keep the soldiers from plundering, if he had desired it. At this instant, Sertorius returns with the laurels he had won, falls upon the troops of Afranius, which were scattered up and down the camp, and destroys great numbers of them. Next morning he armed, and took the field again; but perceiving that Metellus was at hand, he drew off and decamped. He did it, however, with an air of gaiety: "If the "old woman," said he, "had not been here, I would "have flogged the boy well, and sent him back to "Rome."

He was, notwithstanding, much afflicted for the loss of his hind. For she was an excellent engine in the management of the barbarians, who now wanted encouragement more than ever. By good fortune some of his soldiers, as they were strolling one night about the country, met with her, and knowing her by the colour, brought her to him. Sertorius, happy to find her again, promised the soldiers large sums, on condition they would not mention the affair. He carefully concealed the hind; and a few days after appeared in public with a cheerful countenance to transact business, telling the barbarian officers that he had some extraordinary happiness announced to him from Heaven in dream. Then he mounted the tribunal, for the dispatch of such affairs as might come before him. At that instant the hind being let loose near the place by those who had the charge of her, and seeing Sertorius, ran up with great joy, leaped upon the tribunal, laid her head upon his lap, and licked his right hand, in the manner to which she had long been trained. Sertorius returned her caresses with all the tokens of a sincere affection, even to the shedding of tears. The assembly at first looked on with
silent

silent astonishment ; but afterwards they testified their regard for Sertorius with the loudest plaudits and acclamations, as a person of a superior nature beloved by the gods. With these impressions they conducted him to his pavilion, and resumed all the hopes and spirits with which he could have wished to inspire them.

He watched the enemy so close in the plains of Sargentum, that they were in great want of provisions ; and as they were determined at last to go out to forage and collect necessaries, this unavoidably brought on a battle. Great acts of valour were performed on both sides. Memmius, the best officer Pompey had, fell in the hottest of the fight. Sertorius carried all before him, and through heaps of the slain made his way towards Metellus, who made great efforts to oppose him, and fought with a vigour above his years, but at last was borne down with the stroke of a spear. All the Romans who saw or heard of this disaster, resolved not to abandon their general, and from an impulse of shame as well as anger, they turned upon the enemy, and sheltered Metellus with their shields, till others carried him off in safety. Then they charged the Spaniards with great fury, and routed them in their turn.

As victory had now changed sides, Sertorius, to secure a safe retreat for his troops, as well as convenient time for raising fresh forces, had the art to retire into a city strongly situated upon a mountain. He repaired the walls and barricaded the gates, though he thought of nothing less than standing a siege. The enemy, however, were deceived by appearances. They invested the place, and, in the imagination that they should make themselves masters of it without difficulty, took no care to pursue the fugitive barbarians, or to prevent the new levies which the officers of Sertorius were making. These officers he had sent to the towns under his command, with instructions, when they had assembled a sufficient number, to send a messenger to acquaint him with it.

Upon

Upon the receipt of such intelligence, he sallied out, and having made his way through the enemy without much trouble, he joined his new-raised troops, and returned with that additional strength. He now cut off the Roman convoys both by sea and land: at land, by laying ambushes or hemming them in, and, by the rapidity of his motions, meeting them in every quarter; at sea, by guarding the coast with his light piratical vessels. In consequence of this, the Romans were obliged to separate. Metellus retired into Gaul, and Pompey went and took up his winter-quarters in the territories of the Vacceians, where he was greatly distressed for want of money; infomuch, that he informed the senate, he should soon leave the country, if they did not supply him; for he had already sacrificed his own fortune in the defence of Italy. Indeed, the common discourse was, that Sertorius would be in Italy before Pompey. So far had his capacity prevailed over the most distinguished and the ablest generals in Rome.

The opinion which Metellus had of him, and the dread of his abilities, was evident from a proclamation then published; by which Metellus offered a reward of an hundred talents of silver, and twenty thousand acres of land, to any Roman who should take him; and, if that Roman was an exile, he promised he should be restored to his country. Thus he plainly discovered his despair of conquering his enemy, by the price which he set upon him. When he happened once to defeat him in a pitched battle, he was so elated with the advantage, and thought the event so fortunate, that he suffered himself to be saluted as *Imperator*; and the cities received him with sacrifices and every testimony of gratitude to the gods at their altars. Nay, it is said, he received crowns of victory, that he made most magnificent entertainments on the occasion, and wore a triumphal robe. Victories, in effigy, descended in machines, with trophies of gold and garlands in their hands; and choirs of boys and virgins

virgins sung songs in his praise. These circumstances were extremely ridiculous, if he expressed so much joy and such superabundant vanity, while he called Sertorius a fugitive from Sylla, and the poor remains of Carbo's faction.

On the other hand, the magnanimity of Sertorius appeared in every step he took. The Patricians, who had been obliged to fly from Rome, and take refuge with him, he called a senate. Out of them he appointed quæstors and lieutenants, and in every thing proceeded according to the laws of his country. What was of still greater moment, though he made war only with the arms, the money, and the men of Spain, he did not suffer the Spaniards to have the least share in any department of government, even in words or titles. He gave them Roman generals and governors to make it appear that the liberty of Rome was his great object, and that he did not want to set up the Spaniards against the Romans. In fact, he was a true lover of his country, and his passion to be restored to it, was one of the first in his heart. Yet, in his greatest misfortunes, he never departed from his dignity. On the other hand, when he was victorious, he would make an offer to Metellus or Pompey, to lay down his arms, on condition he might be permitted to return in the capacity of a private man. He said, he had rather be the meanest citizen in Rome, than an exile with the command of all the other countries in the world.

This love of his country is said to have been in some measure owing to the attachment he had to his mother. His father died in his infancy, and he had his education wholly from her; consequently his affections centered in her. His Spanish friends wanted to constitute him supreme governor; but having information at that time of the death of his mother, he gave himself up to the most alarming grief. For seven whole days he neither gave the word, nor would be seen by any of his friends. At last, his generals, and others who were upon a footing with him in
point

point of rank, beset his tent, and insisted that he should rise from the ground and make his appearance, to speak to the soldiers, and to take the direction of their affairs, which were then as prosperous as he could desire. Hence many imagined, that he was naturally of a pacific turn, and a lover of tranquillity, but was brought against his inclination, by some means or other, to take upon him the command; and that when he was hard pressed by his enemies, and had no other shelter but that of war to fly to, he had recourse to it merely in the way of self-defence.

We cannot have greater proofs of his magnanimity, than those that appear in his treaty with Mithridates. That prince recovering from the fall given him by Sylla, entered the lists again, and renewed his pretensions to Asia. By this time the fame of Sertorius had extended itself into all parts of the world. The merchants who traded to the west, carried back news of his achievements, like commodities from a distant country, and filled Pontus with his renown. Hereupon Mithridates determined to send an embassy to him; induced to it by the vain speeches of his flatterers, who compared Sertorius to Hannibal, and Mithridates to Pyrrhus, and insisted that the Romans would never be able to bear up against two such powers and two persons of such genius and abilities, when attacked by them in different quarters; the one being the most excellent of generals, and the other the greatest of kings.

In pursuance of this scheme, Mithridates sent ambassadors into Spain with letters to Sertorius, and proposals to be made in conference; the purport of which was, that the king would supply him with money and ships for the war, on condition that he confirmed his claim to Asia, which he had lately given up to the Romans in the treaty with Sylla.

Sertorius assembled his council, which he called *the senate*. They were unanimous in their opinions, that he should accept the conditions, and think himself happy

happy in them ; since they were only asked for an empty name and title to things which it was not in their power to give, and the king in return would supply them with what they most wanted. But Sertorius would by no means agree to it. He said, he had no objection to that prince's having Bithynia and Cappadocia, countries accustomed to kingly government, and not belonging to the Romans by any just title : but as to a province to which the Romans had an undeniable claim, a province which they had been deprived of by Mithridates, which he afterwards lost to Fimbria, and at last had quitted upon the peace with Sylla, he could never consent that he should be put in possession of it again. " Rome," said he, " ought to have her power extended by my victories, and it is not my right to rise to power at her expence. A man who has any dignity of sentiment, should conquer with honour, and not use any base means even to save his life."

Mithridates was perfectly astonished at this answer, and thus communicated his surprize to his friends : " What orders would Sertorius give us, when seated in the senate-house at Rome, if now, driven as he is to the coasts of the Atlantic Ocean, he prescribes bounds to our empire, and threatens us with war if we make any attempt upon Asia?" The treaty, however, went on, and was sworn to. Mithridates was to have Cappadocia and Bithynia, and Sertorius to supply him with a general and some troops ; the king, on the other hand, was to furnish Sertorius with three thousand talents, and forty ships of war.

The general whom Sertorius sent into Asia, was a senator who had taken refuge with him, named Marcus Marius. When Mithridates, by his assistance, had taken some cities in Asia, he permitted that officer to enter them with his rods and axes, and voluntarily took the second place as one of his train. Marius declared some of those cities free, and excused others from imposts and taxes, telling them they were indebted

debted for these favours to Sertorius. So that Asia, which laboured again under the exaction of the Roman tax gatherers, and the oppressions and insults of the garrisons, had once more a prospect of some happier mode of government.

But in Spain, the senators about Sertorius, who looked upon themselves as on a footing with him, no sooner saw themselves a match for the enemy, than they bade adieu to fear, and gave in to a foolish jealousy and envy of their general. At the head of these was Perpenna, who, elated with the vanity of birth, aspired to the command, and scrupled not to address his partisans in private with such speeches as these: "What evil dæmon possesses us, and leads us
 " from bad to worse? We, who would not stay at home
 " and submit to the orders of Sylla, who is master
 " both of sea and land, what are we come to? Did
 " we not come here for liberty? Yet here we are vo-
 " luntary slaves; guards to the exiled Sertorius. We
 " suffer ourselves to be amused with the title of a
 " senate; a title despised and ridiculed by all the
 " world. O noble senators, who submit to the most
 " mortifying tasks and labours, as much as the
 " meanest Spaniards and Lusitanians!"

Numbers were attacked with these and such-like discourses; and though they did not openly revolt, because they dreaded the power of Sertorius, yet they took private methods to ruin his affairs, by treating the barbarians ill, inflicting heavy punishments, and collecting exorbitant subsidies, as if by his order. Hence the cities began to waver in their allegiance, and to raise disturbances; and the persons sent to compose those disturbances by mild and gentle methods made more enemies than they reconciled, and inflamed the rising spirit of disobedience: inso-much that Sertorius, departing from his former clemency and moderation, behaved with great injustice and outrage to the children of the Spaniards in Oscar, putting some to death, and selling others for slaves.

The

The conspiracy daily gathered strength, and among the rest Perpenna drew in Manlius*, who had a considerable command in the army. * * * * *—He and his partisans then prepared letters for Sertorius, which imported that a victory was gained by one of his officers, and great numbers of the enemy slain. Sertorius offered sacrifice for the good tidings; and Perpenna gave him, and his own friends who were by, and who were all privy to the design, an invitation to supper, which with much intreaty he prevailed with him to accept.

The entertainments at which Sertorius was present, had been always attended with great order and decorum; for he could not bear either to see or hear the least indecency, and he had ever accustomed the guests to divert themselves in an innocent and irreproachable manner. But in the midst of the entertainment, the conspirators began to seek occasion to quarrel, giving in to the most dissolute discourse, and pretending drunkenness as the cause of their ribaldry. All this was done to provoke him. However, either vexed at their obscenities, or guessing at their designs by the manner of their drawling them out, he changed his posture, and threw himself back upon his couch, as though he neither heard nor regarded them. Then Perpenna took a cup of wine, and as he was drinking, purposely let it fall out of his hands. The noise it made being the signal for them to fall on, Antony, who sat next to Sertorius, gave him a stroke with his sword. Sertorius turned, and strove to get up; but Anthony throwing himself upon his breast, held both his hands; so that not being able in the least to defend himself, the rest of the conspirators dispatched him with many wounds.

Upon the first news of his death, most of the Spaniards abandoned Perpenna, and by their deputies surrendered themselves to Pompey and Metellus. Perpenna attempted something with those that remained;

* Dacier thinks we should read *Manius*, by which he means *Manius Antonius*, who gave Sertorius the first blow.

but

but though he had the use of all that Sertorius had prepared, he made so ill a figure, that it was evident he knew no more how to command, than how to obey. He gave Pompey battle, and was soon routed and taken prisoner. Nor in this last distress did he behave as became a general. He had the papers of Sertorius in his possession, and he offered Pompey the sight of original letters from men of consular dignity, and the greatest interest in Rome, by which they invited Sertorius into Italy, in consequence of the desire of numbers, who wanted a change in the present face of affairs, and a new administration.

Pompey, however, behaved not like a young man, but with all the marks of a solid and improved understanding, and by his prudence delivered Rome from a train of dreadful fears and new commotions. He collected all those letters and the other papers of Sertorius, and burnt them, without either reading them himself, or suffering any other person to do it. As for Perpenna, he put him to death immediately, lest he should mention the names of those who wrote the letter, and thence new seditions and troubles should arise. Perpenna's accomplices met the same fate; some of them being brought to Pompey, and by him ordered to the block, and others who fled into Africa were shot by the Moors. None escaped but Aufidius, the rival of Manlius. Whether it was that he could not be found, or they thought him not worth the seeking, he lived to old age in a village of the barbarians, wretchedly poor, and universally despised.

E U M E N E S.

DURIS the historian writes, that Eumenes the Cardian was the son of a poor waggoner in the Chersonesus, and yet that he had a liberal education both as to learning and the exercises then in vogue*. He says that while he was but a lad, Philip happening to be in Cardia, went to spend an hour of leisure in seeing how the young men acquitted themselves in the *pancratation* †, and the boys in wrestling. Among these Eumenes succeeded so well, and shewed so much activity and address, that Philip was pleased with him, and took him into his train. But others assert, with a greater appearance of probability, that Philip preferred him on account of the ties of friendship and hospitality there were between him and the father of Eumenes.

After the death of Philip, he maintained the reputation of being equal to any of Alexander's officers in capacity, and in the honour with which he discharged his commissions; and though he had only the title of principal secretary, he was looked upon in as honourable a light as the king's most intimate friends and counsellors; insomuch, that he had the sole direction of an Indian expedition, and upon the death of Hephæstion, when Perdiccas had the post of that favourite, he succeeded Perdiccas ‡. Therefore, when

* There were public schools, where children of all conditions were taught without distinction.

† The *pancratation* (as we have already observed) was a composition of wrestling and boxing.

‡ In the printed text it is *παρχιας*, province. But as we know of no government that Alexander gave Eumenes; *ἰσπαρχιας* a command in the cavalry, which is the reading in some manuscripts, appears preferable. And Cornelius Nepos confirms it in these words. *Præfuit etiam alteri equitum alæ.*

Neoptolemus, who had been the principal armour-bearer, took upon him to say, after the death of Alexander, "that he had borne the shield and spear of that monarch, and that Eumenes had only followed with his escritoir," the Macedonians only laughed at his vanity; knowing that, beside other marks of honour, Alexander had thought Eumenes not unworthy his alliance. For Barsine, the daughter of Artabazus, who was the first lady Alexander took to his bed in Asia, and who brought him a son named Hercules, had two sisters; one of which, called Apama, he gave to Ptolemy, and the other, called also Barsine, he gave to Eumenes, at the time when he was selecting Persian ladies as wives for his friends*.

Yet it must be acknowledged, he was often in disgrace with Alexander, and once or twice in danger too, on account of Hephæstion. In the first place, Hephæstion gave a musician named Evius, the quarters which the servants of Eumenes had taken up for him. Upon this, Eumenes went in great wrath to Alexander, with Mentor †, and cried, "The best method they could take, was to throw away their arms, and learn to play upon the flute, or turn tragedians." Alexander at first entered into his quarrel, and sharply rebuked Hephæstion: but he soon changed his mind, and turned the weight of his displeasure upon Eumenes; thinking he had behaved with more disrespect to him than resentment against Hephæstion.

* Alexander had married Statira, the eldest daughter of Darius, and given the youngest, named Drypetis, to Hephæstion. This was a measure well calculated for establishing him and his posterity on the Persian throne; but it was obnoxious to the Macedonians. Therefore, to support it on one hand, and to obviate inconveniences on the other, he selected eighty virgins out of the most honourable families in Persia, and persuaded his principal friends and officers to marry them.

† Mentor was brother to Memnon, whose widow Barsine was Alexander's mistress. He was also brother-in-law to Artabazus; and the second Barsine, whom Eumenes married, seems to have been daughter to Memnon, and Mentor's sister.

Again; when Alexander wanted to send out Nearchus with a fleet to explore the coasts of the ocean, he found his treasury low, and asked his friends for a supply. Among the rest, he applied to Eumenes for three hundred talents, who offered him only a hundred, and assured him, at the same time, he should find it difficult to collect that sum by his stewards. Alexander refused the offer, but did not remonstrate or complain. However, he ordered his servants privately to set fire to Eumenes's tent, that he might be forced to carry out his money, and be openly convicted of the falsity. It happened that the tent was entirely consumed, and Alexander was sorry on account of the loss of his papers. There was gold and silver found melted to the amount of more than a thousand talents, yet even then the king took none of it. And having written to all his grandees and lieutenants to send him copies of the dispatches that were lost, upon their arrival he put them again under the care of Eumenes.

Some time after, another dispute happened between him and Hephæstion, on account of some present from the king to one of them. Much severe and abusive language passed between them, yet Alexander, for the present, did not look upon Eumenes with the less regard. But, Hephæstion dying soon after, the king, in his unspeakable affliction for that loss, expressed his resentment against all who he thought envied that favourite while he lived, or rejoiced at his death. Eumenes was one of those whom he most suspected of such sentiments, and he often mentioned the differences, and the severe language those differences had produced. Eumenes, however, being an artful man, and happy at expedients, made the very person through whom he had lost the king's favour, the means of regaining it. He seconded the zeal and application of Alexander to celebrate the memory of Hephæstion. He suggested such instances of veneration as he thought might do most honour to the deceased,
and

and contributed largely and freely, out of his own purse, towards the expences of his funeral.

Upon the death of Alexander, a great quarrel broke out between the *phalanx* and the late king's friends and generals. Eumenes, in his heart, sided with the *phalanx*, but in appearance stood neuter, as a person perfectly indifferent; saying, it did not become him, who was a stranger, to interfere in the disputes of the Macedonians. And when the other great officers retired from Babylon, he stayed there, endeavouring to appease that body of infantry, and to dispose them to a reconciliation.

After these troubles were past, and the generals met to consult about dividing the provinces and armies among them, the countries assigned Eumenes were Cappadocia and Paphlagonia, and the coast of the sea of Pontus as far as Trapezus. These countries were not then subject to the Macedonians, for Ariarathes was king of them; but Leonatus and Antigonus were to go with a great army, and put Eumenes in possession. Antigonus, now elated with power, and despising all the world, gave no attention to the letters of Perdicas. But Leonatus marched down from the upper provinces into Phrygia, and promised to undertake the expedition for Eumenes. Immediately after this, Hecatæus, a petty tyrant in Cardia, applied to Leonatus, and desired him rather to go to the relief of Antipater, and the Macedonians, who were besieged in Lamia*. Leonatus being inclined to go, called Eumenes and attempted to reconcile him to Hecatæus. They long had suspicions of each other on account of a family difference in point of politics; in consequence of which Eumenes had openly accused Hecatæus of setting himself up tyrant in Cardia, and had intreated Alexander to restore that people to their liberty. He now desired to be excused taking a share in the Grecian expedition, alleging he was afraid Antipater, who had long hated

* A city of Thessaly.

him, to gratify himself as well as Hecatæus, would make some attempt upon his life. Upon which, Leonatus placing an entire confidence in him, opened to him all his heart. He told him the assisting Antipater was nothing but a pretext, and that he designed, as soon as he landed in Greece, to assert his claim to Macedonia. At the same time he shewed him letters from Cleopatra*, in which she invited him to Pella, and promised to give him her hand.

Whether Eumenes was really afraid of Antipater, or whether he despaired of any service from Leonatus, who was extremely obstinate in his temper, and followed every impulse of a precipitate ambition, he withdrew from him in the night with all his equipage, which consisted of three hundred horse, two hundred of his domestics well armed, and all his treasure, amounting to five thousand talents. With this he fled to Perdiccas; and as he acquainted that general with the secret designs of Leonatus, he was immediately taken into a high degree of favour, and admitted to a share in his councils. In a little time, too, Perdiccas in person conducted him into Cappadocia, with a great army, took Ariarathes prisoner, subdued all the country, and established Eumenes in that government; in consequence of which, Eumenes put the cities under the direction of his friends, placed guards and garrisons with proper officers at their head, and appointed judges and superintendants of the revenue: Perdiccas leaving the entire disposition of those things to him. After this, he departed with Perdiccas: choosing to give him that testimony of respect, and not thinking it consistent with his interest to be absent from his court. But Perdiccas, satisfied that he could himself execute the designs he was meditating, and perceiving that the provinces he had left behind required an able and faithful guardian, sent back Eumenes when he had reached Cilicia. The pretence was, that he might attend to the concerns of his own government; but

* The sister of Alexander.

the real intention, that he should secure the adjoining province of Armenia, which was disturbed by the practices of Neoptolemus.

Neoptolemus was a man of sanguine pursuits, and unbounded vanity. Eumenes, however, endeavoured to keep him to his duty, by soothing applications. And as he saw the Macedonian infantry were become extremely insolent and audacious, he applied himself to raising a body of cavalry, which might be a counterpoise against them. For this purpose he remitted the taxes, and gave other immunities to those of his province who were good horsemen. He also bought a great number of horses, and distributed them among such of his courtiers as he placed the greatest confidence in; exciting them by honours and rewards, and training them to strength and skill by a variety of exercises. The Macedonians upon this were differently affected, some with astonishment, and others with joy, to see a body of cavalry collected, to the number of six thousand three hundred, and trained in so short a space of time.

About that time Craterus and Antipater, having reduced Greece, passed into Asia, to overthrow the power of Perdiccas; and news was brought that their first intention was to enter Cappadocia. Perdiccas himself was engaged in war with Ptolemy: he therefore appointed Eumenes commander in chief of the forces in Armenia and Cappadocia; and wrote to Alcetas and Neoptolemus to obey the orders of that general, whom he had invested with discretionary powers. Alcetas plainly refused to submit to that injunction; alleging that the Macedonians would be ashamed to fight Antipater; and as for Craterus, their affection for him was such, that they would receive him with open arms. On the other hand, it was visible that Neoptolemus was forming some treacherous scheme against Eumenes; for, when called upon, he refused to join him, and, instead of that, prepared to give him battle.

This was the first occasion on which Eumenes reaped the fruits of his foresight and timely preparations. For, though his infantry were beaten, with his cavalry he put Neoptolemus to flight, and took his baggage. And while the phalanx were dispersed upon the pursuit, he fell upon them in such good order with his horse, that they were forced to lay down their arms, and take an oath to serve him. Neoptolemus collected some of the fugitives, and retired with them to Craterus and Antipater. They had already sent ambassadors to Eumenes, to desire him to adopt their interests, in reward of which they would confirm to him the provinces he had, and give him others, with an additional number of troops; in which case he would find Antipater a friend instead of an enemy, and continue in friendship with Craterus, instead of turning his arms against him.

Eumenes made answer to these proposals, "That having long been on a footing of enmity with Antipater, he did not choose to be his friend, at a time when he saw him treating his friends as so many enemies. As for Craterus, he was ready to reconcile him to Perdicas, and to compromise matters between them upon just and reasonable terms. But if he should begin hostilities, he would support his injured friend while he had an hour to live, and rather sacrifice life itself than his honour."

When this answer was reported to Antipater and Craterus, they took some time to deliberate upon the measures they should pursue. Meanwhile Neoptolemus arriving, gave them account of the battle he had lost, and requested assistance of them both, but particularly of Craterus. He said, "The Macedonians had so extraordinary an attachment to him, that if they saw but his hat, or heard one accent of his tongue, they would immediately run to him with their swords in their hands." Indeed the reputation of Craterus was very great among them, and, after the death of Alexander, most of them wished to be under

under his command. They remembered the risks he had run of embroiling himself with Alexander for their sakes; how he had combated the inclination for Persian fashions which insensibly grew upon him, and supported the customs of his country against the insults of barbaric pomp and luxury.

Craterus now sent Antipater into Cilicia, and taking a considerable part of the forces himself, marched along with Neoptolemus against Eumenes. If Eumenes foresaw his coming, and was prepared for it, we may impute it to the vigilance necessary in a general: we see nothing in that of superior genius. But when, besides his concealing from the enemy what they ought not to discover, he brought his own troops to action, without knowing who was their adversary, and made them serve against Craterus, without finding out that he was the officer they had to contend with; in this we see characteristic proofs of generalship. For he propagated a report, that Neoptolemus, assisted by Pigris, was advancing again with some Cappadocian and Paphlagonian horse. The night he designed to decamp, he fell into a sound sleep, and had a very extraordinary dream. He thought he saw two Alexanders prepared to try their strength against each other, and each at the head of a phalanx. Minerva came to support the one, and Ceres the other. A sharp conflict ensued, in which the Alexander assisted by Minerva was defeated, and Ceres crowned the victor with a wreath of corn. He immediately concluded that the dream was in his favour, because he had to fight for a country which was most of it in tillage, and which had then so excellent a crop well advanced towards the sickle, that the whole face of it had the appearance of a profound peace. He was the more confirmed in his opinion, when he found the enemy's word was *Minerva and Alexander*; and in opposition to it he gave *Ceres and Alexander*. At the same time he ordered his men to crown themselves, and to cover their arms with ears of corn. He was several times upon the point of declaring

declaring to his principal officers and captains what adversary they had to contend with ; thinking it a hazardous undertaking to keep to himself a secret so important, and perhaps necessary for them to know. Yet he abode by his first resolution, and trusted his own heart only with the danger that might ensue.

When he came to give battle, he would not set any Macedonian to engage Craterus, but appointed to that charge two bodies of foreign horse, commanded by Pharnabazus the son of Artabazus and Phoenix of Tenedos. They had orders to advance on the first sight of the enemy, and come to close fighting without giving them time to retire; and if they attempted to speak or send any herald, they were not to regard it. For he had strong apprehensions that the Macedonians would go over to Craterus, if they happened to know him. Eumenes himself, with a troop of three hundred select horse, went and posted himself in the right wing where he should have to act against Neoptolemus. When they had passed a little hill that separated the two armies, and came in view, they charged with such impetuosity, that Craterus was extremely surprised, and expressed his resentment in strong terms against Neoptolemus, who he thought had deceived him with a pretence that the Macedonians would change sides. However, he exhorted his officers to behave like brave men, and stood forward to the encounter. In the first shock, which was very violent, the spears were soon broke, and they were then to decide the dispute with the sword.

The behaviour of Craterus did no dishonour to Alexander. He killed numbers with his own hand, and overthrew many others who assailed him in front. But at last he received a side-blow from a Thracian, which brought him to the ground. Many passed over him without knowing him ; but Gorgias one of Eumenes's officers, took notice of him ; and being well acquainted with his person, leaped from his horse and guarded the body. It was then, however, too late ;
he

he was at the last extremity, and in the agonies of death.

In the mean time Neoptolemus engaged Eumenes. The most violent hatred had long subsisted between them, and this day added stings to it. They knew not one another in the two first encounters, but in the third they did ; and then they rushed forward impetuously with swords drawn and loud shouts. The shock their horses met with was so violent, that it resembled that of two galleys. The fierce antagonists quitted the bridles, and laid hold on each other ; each endeavouring to tear off the helmet or the breast-plate of his enemy. While their hands were thus engaged, their horses went from under them ; and as they fell to the ground without quitting their hold, they wrestled for the advantage. Neoptolemus was beginning to rise first, when Eumenes wounded him in the ham, and by that means got upon his feet before him. Neoptolemus being wounded in one knee, supported himself upon the other, and fought with great courage underneath, but was not able to reach his adversary a mortal blow. At last receiving a wound in the neck, he grew faint, and stretched himself upon the ground. Eumenes, with all the eagerness of inveterate hatred, hastening to strip him of his arms, and loading him with reproaches, did not observe that his sword was still in his hand ; so that Neoptolemus wounded him under the cuirass, where it touches upon the groin. However, as the stroke was but feeble, the apprehensions it gave him were greater than the real hurt.

When he had despoiled his adversary, weak as he was with the wounds he had received in his legs and arms, he mounted his horse, and made up to his left wing, which he supposed might be still engaged with the enemy. There, being informed of the fate of Craterus, he hastened to him ; and finding his breath and his senses not quite gone, he alighted from his horse, wept over him, and gave him his hand. One while he vented his execrations upon Neoptolemus, and another while

while he lamented his own ill fortune, and the cruel necessity he was under of coming to extremities with his most intimate friend, and either giving or receiving the fatal blow.

Eumenes won this battle about ten days after the former. And it raised him to a high rank of honour, because it brought him the palm both of capacity and courage. But at the same time it exposed him to the envy and hatred both of his allies and his enemies. It seemed hard to them, that a stranger, a foreign adventurer, should have destroyed one of the greatest and most illustrious of the Macedonians with the arms of those very Macedonians. Had the news of the death of Craterus been brought sooner to Perdiccas, none but he would have swayed the Macedonian sceptre. But he was slain in a mutiny in Egypt, two days before the news arrived. The Macedonians were so much exasperated against Eumenes upon the late event, that they immediately decreed his death. Antigonus and Antipater were to take the direction of the war which was to carry that decree into execution. Meantime Eumenes went to the king's horses, which were pasturing upon mount Ida, and took such as he had occasion for, but gave the keepers a discharge for them. When Antipater was apprised of it, he laughed, and said, "He could not enough admire the caution of Eumenes, who must certainly expect to see the account of the king's goods and chattels stated either on one side or other."

Eumenes intended to give battle upon the plains of Lydia near Sardis, both because he was strong in cavalry, and because he was ambitious to shew Cleopatra what a respectable force he had. However, at the request of that princess, who was afraid to give Antipater any cause of complaint, he marched to the Upper Phrygia, and wintered in Celænæ. There Alcetas, Polemon, and Docimus, contended with him for the command; upon which he said, "This makes good the observation, Every one thinks of advancing

“ing himself, but no one thinks of the danger that
“may accrue to the public weal.”

He had promised to pay his army within three days, and as he had not money to do it, he sold them all the farms and castles in the country, together with the people and cattle that were upon them. Every captain of a Macedonian company, or officer who had a command in the foreign troops, received battering engines from Eumenes; and when he had taken the castle, he divided the spoil among his company, according to the arrears due to each particular man. This restored him the affections of the soldiers; insomuch that when papers were found in his camp, dispersed by the enemy, in which their generals promised a hundred talents and great honours to the man who should kill Eumenes, the Macedonians were highly incensed, and gave orders that from that time he should have a body-guard of a thousand officer-like men * always about him, who should keep watch by turns, and be in waiting day and night. There was not a man who refused that charge; and they were glad to receive from Eumenes the marks of honour, which those who were called the king's friends used to receive from the hands of royalty. For he too was impowered to distribute purple hats and rich robes, which were considered as the principal gifts the kings of Macedon had to bestow.

Prosperity gives some appearance of higher sentiments even to persons of mean spirit, and we see something of grandeur and importance about them in the elevation where fortune has placed them. But he who is inspired by real fortitude and magnanimity, will shew it most by the dignity of his behaviour under losses, and in the most adverse fortune. So did Eumenes. When he had lost a battle to Antigonus in the territory of the Orcynians in Cappadocia, through the treachery of one of his officers, though he was forced to fly himself, he did not suffer

* Ταυ ἰσχυρονικων.

the traitor to escape to the enemy, but took him and hanged him upon the spot. In his flight he took a different way from the pursuers, and privately turned round in such a manner as to regain the field of battle. There he encamped, in order to bury the dead; whom he collected and burnt with the door-posts of the neighbouring villages. The bodies of the officers and common soldiers were burnt upon separate piles; and when he had raised great monuments of earth over them, he decamped. So that Antigonus coming that way afterwards, was astonished at his firmness and intrepidity.

Another time he fell in with the baggage of Antigonus, and could easily have taken it, together with many persons of free condition, a great number of slaves, and all the wealth which had been amassed in so many wars, and the plunder of so many countries. But he was afraid that his men, when possessed of such riches and spoils, would think themselves too heavy for flight, and be too effeminate to bear the hardship of long wandering from place to place; and yet time, he knew, was his principal resource for getting clear of Antigonus. On the other hand, he was sensible it would be extremely difficult to keep the Macedonians from flying upon the spoil, when it was so much within reach. He therefore ordered them to refresh themselves, and feed their horses, before they attacked the enemy. In the mean time he privately sent a messenger to Menander, who escorted the baggage, to acquaint him, "That Eumenes, in consideration of the friendship which had subsisted between them, advised him to provide for his safety, and to retire as fast as possible from the plain, where he might easily be surrounded, to the foot of the neighbouring mountain, where the cavalry could not act, nor any troops fall upon his rear."

Menander soon perceived his danger, and retired. After which, Eumenes sent out his scouts in the presence of all the soldiers, and commanded the latter to arm and bridle their horses, in order for the attack.

The

The scouts brought back an account that Menander had gained a situation where he could not be taken. Hereupon Eumenes pretended great concern, and drew off his forces. We are told, that upon the report Menander made of this affair to Antigonus, the Macedonians launched out in the praises of Eumenes, and began to regard him with an eye of kindness, for acting so generous a part, when it was in his power to have enslaved their children and dishonoured their wives. The answer Antigonus gave them was this: "Think not, my good friends, it was for your sake he let them go; it was for his own. He did not choose to have so many shackles upon him, when he designed to fly."

After this, Eumenes, being forced to wander and fly from place to place, spoke to many of his soldiers to leave him; either out of care for their safety, or because he did not choose to have a body of men after him, who were too few to stand a battle, and too many to fly in privacy. And when he retired to the castle of Nora*; on the confines of Lycaonia and Cappadocia, with only five hundred horse and two hundred foot, there again he gave all such of his friends free leave to depart, as did not like the inconveniences of the place, and the meanness of diet †, and dismissed them with great marks of kindness.

In a little time Antigonus came up, and before he formed that siege, invited him to a conference. Eumenes answered, "Antigonus had many friends, and generals to take his place, in case of accidents to himself; but the troops he had the care of, had none to command or to protect them after him." He therefore insisted that Antigonus should send hostages, if he wanted to treat with him in person. And when Antigonus wanted him to make his application to him first, as the greater man, he said, "While I am master of my sword, I shall never think any man

* It was only two hundred and fifty paces in circumference.

† A hundred left him upon this offer.

“ greater

“ greater than myself.” At last Antigonus sent his nephew Ptolemy into the fort as an hostage, and then Eumenes came out to him. They embraced with great tokens of cordiality, having formerly been intimate friends and companions.

In the conference, which lasted a considerable time, Eumenes made no mention of security for his own life, or of an amnesty for what was passed. Instead of that, he insisted on having the government of his provinces confirmed to him, and considerable rewards for his services besides: infomuch that all who attended on the occasion, admired his firmness, and were astonished at his greatness of mind.

During the interview, numbers of the Macedonians ran to see Eumenes; for after the death of Craterus, no man was so much talked of in the army as he. But Antigonus, fearing they should offer him some violence, called to them to keep at a distance, and when they still kept crowding in, ordered them to be driven off with stones. At last he took him in his arms, and keeping off the multitude with his guards, with some difficulty got him safe again into the castle.

As the treaty ended in nothing, Antigonus drew a line of circumvallation round the place, and having left a sufficient number of troops to carry on the siege, he retired. The fort was abundantly provided with corn, water, and salt, but in want of every thing else requisite for the table. Yet with this mean provision he furnished out a cheerful entertainment for his friends, whom he invited in their turns; for he took care to season his provisions with agreeable discourse and the utmost cordiality. His appearance was, indeed, very engaging. His countenance had nothing of a ferocious or war-worn turn, but was smooth and elegant; and the proportion of his limbs was so excellent, that they might seem to have come from the chissel of the statuary. And though he was not very eloquent, he had a soft, and persuasive way of speaking, as we may conclude from his epistles.

He

He observed, that the greatest inconvenience to the garrison was the narrowness of the space in which they were confined, enclosed as it was with small houses, and the whole of it not more than two furlongs in circuit; so that they were forced to take their food without exercise, and their horses to do the same. To remove the languor which is the consequence of that want, as well as to prepare them for flight, if occasion should offer, he assigned a room, fourteen cubits long, the largest in all the fort, for the men to walk in, and gave them orders gradually to mend their pace. As for the horses, he tied them to the roof of the stable with strong halters. Then he raised their heads and fore-parts by a pulley, till they could scarce touch the ground with their fore-feet, but, at the same time, they stood firm upon their hind-feet. In this posture the grooms plied them with the whip and the voice; and the horses thus irritated, bounded furiously on their hind-feet, or strained to set their fore-feet on the ground; by which efforts their whole body was exercised, till they were out of breath and in a foam. After this exercise, which was no bad one either for speed or strength, they had their barley given them boiled, that they might sooner digest it.

As the siege was drawn out to a considerable length, Antigonus received information of the death of Antipater in Macedonia, and of the troubles that prevailed there through the animosities between Cassander and Polyperchon. He now bade adieu to all inferior prospects, and grasped the whole empire in his schemes; in consequence of which, he wanted to make Eumenes his friend, and bring him to co-operate in the execution of his plan. For this purpose he sent to him Hieronymus *, with proposals of peace, on condition

* Hieronymus was of Cardia, and therefore a countryman of Eumenes. He wrote the history of those princes who divided Alexander's dominions among them, and of their successors.

he took the oath that was offered to him. Eumenes made a correction in the oath, and left it to the Macedonians before the place to judge which form was the most reasonable. Indeed, Antigonus, to save appearances, had slightly mentioned the royal family in the beginning, and all the rest ran in his own name. Eumenes, therefore, put Olympias and the princes of the blood first: and he proposed to engage himself by oath of fealty not to Antigonus only, but to Olympias, and the princes her children. This appearing to the Macedonians much more consistent with justice than the other, they permitted Eumenes to take it, and then raised the siege. They likewise sent this oath to Antigonus, requiring him to take it on the other part.

Meantime Eumenes restored to the Cappadocians all the hostages he had in Nora, and in return they furnished him with horses, beasts of burthen, and tents. He also collected great part of his soldiers who had dispersed themselves after his defeat, and were straggling about the country. By this means he assembled near a thousand horse*, with which he marched off as fast as possible; rightly judging he had much to fear from Antigonus. For that general not only ordered him to be besieged again, and shut up with a circular wall, but in his letters expressed great resentment against the Macedonians for admitting the correction of the oath.

While Eumenes was flying from place to place, he received letters from Macedonia, in which the people declared their apprehensions of the growing power of Antigonus; and others from Olympias, wherein she invited him to come and take upon him the tuition and care of Alexander's son, whose life she conceived to be in danger. At the same time, Polyperchon and king Philip sent him orders to carry on the war against Antigonus, with the forces in Cappadocia.

* Diodorus Siculus says two thousand.

They

They impowered him also to take five hundred talents out of the royal treasure at Quinda*, for the re-establishment of his own affairs, and as much more as he should judge necessary for the purposes of the war. Antigenes and Teutamus too, who commanded the *Argyraspides*, had directions to support him.

These officers, in appearance, gave Eumenes a kind reception, but it was not difficult to discover the envy and jealousy they had in their hearts, and how much they disdained to act under him. Their envy he endeavoured to remove by not taking the money, which he told them he did not want. To remove their obstinacy and ambition for the first place, was not so easy an affair; for, though they knew not how to command, they were resolved not to obey. In this case he called in the assistance of superstition. He said Alexander had appeared to him in a dream, and shewed him a pavilion with royal furniture, and a throne in the middle of it, after which, that prince declared, “ If they would hold their councils and dispatch business there, he would be with them, and prosper every measure and action which commenced under his auspices †.”

He easily persuaded Antigenes and Teutamus to believe he had this vision. They were not willing to wait upon him, nor did he choose to dishonour his commission by going to them. They prepared, therefore, a royal pavilion, and a throne in it, which they called the throne of Alexander; and thither they repaired to consult upon the most important affairs.

* In Caria.

† In consequence of this, according to Diodorus, Eumenes proposed to take a sum out of the treasury, sufficient for making a throne of gold; to place upon that throne, the diadem, the sceptre, and crown, and all the other ensigns of royalty belonging to that prince; that every morning a sacrifice should be offered him by all the officers; and that all orders should be issued in his name. A stroke of policy suitable to the genius of Eumenes.

From thence they marched to the higher provinces, and, upon the way, were joined by Peucestas, a friend of Eumenes, and other governors of provinces. Thus the Macedonians were greatly strengthened, both in point of numbers, and in the most magnificent provision of all the requisites of war. But power and affluence had rendered these governors so intractable in society, and so dissolute in their way of living, since the death of Alexander, and they came together with a spirit of despotism, so nursed by barbaric pride, that they soon became obnoxious to each other, and no sort of harmony could subsist between them. Besides, they flattered the Macedonians without any regard to decorum, and supplied them with money in such a manner, for their entertainments and sacrifices, that, in a little time, their camp looked like a place of public reception for every scene of intemperance; and those veterans were to be courted for military appointments, as the people are for their votes in a republic.

Eumenes soon perceived that the new-arrived grandees despised each other, but were afraid of him, and watched an opportunity to kill him. He therefore pretended he was in want of money, and borrowed large sums of those that hated him most *, in order that they might place some confidence in him, or at least might give up their designs upon his life, out of regard to the money lent him. Thus he found guards for himself, in the opulence of others; and, though men in general seek to save their lives by giving, he provided for his safety by receiving.

While no danger was near, the Macedonians took bribes of all who wanted to corrupt them, and, like a kind of guards, daily attended the gates of those that affected the command. But when Antigonus came and encamped over against them, and affairs called for a real general, Eumenes was applied to, not only by the soldiers, but the very grandees, who had

* Four hundred thousand crowns.

taken

taken so much state upon them in time of peace and pleasure, freely gave place to him, and took the post he assigned them without murmuring. Indeed, when Antigonus attempted to pass the river Pasitigris, not one of the other officers who were appointed to guard it, got any intelligence of his motions: Eumenes alone was at hand to oppose him; and he did it so effectually, that he filled the channel with dead bodies, and made four thousand prisoners.

The behaviour of the Macedonians, when Eumenes happened to be sick, still more particularly shewed, that they thought others fit to direct in magnificent entertainments, and the solemnities of peace, but that he was the only person among them fit to lead an army. For Peucestas having feasted them in a sumptuous manner in Persia, and given each man a sheep for sacrifice, hoped to be indulged with the command. A few days after, as they were marching against the enemy, Eumenes was so dangerously ill, that he was forced to be carried in a litter, at some distance from the ranks, lest his rest, which was very precarious, should be disturbed with the noise. They had not gone far, before the enemy suddenly made their appearance, for they had passed the intermediate hills, and were now descending into the plain. The lustre of their golden armour glittering in the sun, as they marched down the hill, the elephants with their towers on their backs, and the purple vests which the cavalry used to wear when they were advancing to the combat, struck the troops that were to oppose them with such surprise, that the front halted, and called out for Eumenes; declaring that they would not move a step farther, if he had not the direction of them. At the same time they grounded their arms, exhorted each other to stop, and insisted that their officers should not hazard an engagement without Eumenes.

Eumenes no sooner heard this, than he advanced with the utmost expedition, hastening the slaves that carried the litter. He likewise opened the curtains,

and stretched out his hand, in token of his joy. On the first sight of the general of their heart, the troops saluted him in the Macedonian language, clanked their arms, and with loud shouts, challenged the enemy to advance, thinking themselves invincible while he was at their head.

Antigonus having learnt from some prisoners, that Eumenes was so extremely ill, that he was forced to be carried in a litter, concluded he should find no great difficulty in beating the other generals; and, therefore hastened to the attack. But when he came to reconnoitre the enemy's army, and saw in what excellent order it was drawn up, he stood still some time, in silent admiration. At last, spying the litter carried about, from one wing to the other, he laughed out aloud, as his manner was, and said to his friends, "Yon litter is the thing that pitches the battle against us." After this, he immediately retreated to his entrenchments*.

The

* There are some particulars in Diodorus which deserve to be inserted here. After the two armies were separated, without coming to action, they encamped about three furlongs distance from each other; and Antigonus soon finding the country where he lay so much exhausted, that it would be very difficult for him to subsist, sent deputies to the confederate army to solicit them, especially the governors of provinces, and the old Macedonian corps, to desert Eumenes and to join him; which at this time, they rejected with the highest indignation. After the deputies were dismissed, Eumenes came into the assembly, and delivered himself in the following fable: "A lion once falling in love with a young damsel, demanded her in marriage of her father. The father made answer, that he looked on such an alliance as a great honour to his family, but stood in fear of his claws and teeth, lest upon any trifling dispute that might happen between them after marriage he might exercise them a little too hastily upon his daughter. To remove this objection, the ambitious lion caused both his nails and teeth to be drawn immediately: whereupon, the father took a cudgel, and soon got rid of his enemy. This," continued he, "is the very thing aimed at by Antigonus, who is liberal in promises, till he has made himself master of your forces, and then beware of his teeth and paws." A few days after this, Eumenes having intelligence that

The Macedonians had hardly recovered themselves from their fears, before they began to behave again in a disorderly and mutinous manner to their officers, and spread themselves over almost all the provinces of Gabene for winter quarters; insomuch that the first were at the distance of a thousand furlongs from the last. Antigonus being informed of this circumstance, moved back against them, without losing a moment's time. He took a rugged road, that afforded no water, because it was the shortest; hoping, if he fell upon them while thus dispersed, that it would be impossible for their officers to assemble them.

However, as soon as he had entered that desolate country, his troops were attacked with such violent winds, and severe frosts, that it was difficult for them to proceed; and they found it necessary to light many fires. For this reason their march could not be concealed. The barbarians, who inhabited the mountains that overlook the desert, wondering what such a number of fires could mean, sent some persons upon dro-medaries to Peucestas, with an account of them.

that Antigonus intended to decamp in the night, presently guessed that his design was to seek quarters of refreshment for his army in the rich district of Gabene. To prevent this, and at the same time to gain a passage into that country, he instructed some soldiers to pretend they were deserters, and sent them into the camp of Antigonus, where they reported that Eumenes intended to attack him in his trenches that very night. But while Antigonus's troops were under arms, Eumenes marched for Gabene, which, at length, Antigonus suspected; and, having given proper orders to his foot, marched immediately after him with his cavalry. Early in the morning, from the top of a hill, he discerned Eumenes, with his army, below; and Eumenes, upon sight of the cavalry, concluding that the whole army of Antigonus was at hand, faced about, and disposed his troops in order to battle. Thus Eumenes was deceived in his turn; and as soon as Antigonus's infantry came up, a sharp action followed, in which the victory seemed won and lost several times. At last, however, Antigonus had visibly the worst, being forced to withdraw, by long marches, into Media.

DION. SIC. *Lib.* xviii.

Peucestas, distracted with terror at this news, prepared for flight, intending to take with him such troops as he could collect on the way. But Eumenes soon dispelled their fears and uneasiness, by promising so to impede the enemy's march, that they would arrive three days later than they were expected. Finding that they listened to him, he sent orders to the officers to draw all the troops from their quarters, and assemble them with speed. At the same time he took his horse, and went with his colleagues to seek out a lofty piece of ground, which might attract the attention of the troops marching below. Having found one that answered his purpose, he measured it, and caused a number of fires to be lighted at proper intervals, so as to resemble a camp.

When Antigonus beheld those fires upon the heights, he was in the utmost distress. For he thought the enemy were apprised of his intention some time before, and were come to meet him. Not choosing, therefore, with forces so harassed and fatigued with their march, to be obliged to fight troops that were perfectly fresh, and had wintered in agreeable quarters, he left the short road, and led his men through the towns and villages; giving them abundant time to refresh themselves. But when he found that no parties came out to gall him in his march, which is usual when an enemy is near, and was informed, by the neighbouring inhabitants, that they had seen no troops whatever, nor any thing but fires upon the hills, he perceived that Eumenes had outdone him in point of generalship; and this incensed him so much, that he advanced with a resolution to try his strength in a pitched battle.

Meantime the greatest part of the forces repairing to Eumenes, in admiration of his capacity, desired him to take the fold command. Upon this, Antigenes, and Teutamus, who were at the head of the *Argyrasides*, were so exasperated with envy, that they formed a plot against his life; and having drawn into it most
of

of the grandees and generals, they consulted upon a proper time and method to take him off. They all agreed to make use of him in the ensuing battle, and to assassinate him immediately after. But Eudamus, master of the elephants, and Phædimus, privately informed Eumenes of their resolutions; not out of any kindness or benevolent regard, but because they were afraid of losing the money they had lent him. He commended them for the honour with which they behaved, and retired to his tent. There he told his friends, "That he lived amongst a herd of savage beasts," and immediately made his will. After which, he destroyed all his papers, lest, after his death, charges and impeachments should arise against the persons who wrote them, in consequence of the secrets discovered there. He then considered, whether he should put the enemy in the way of gaining the victory, or take his flight through Media and Armenia into Cappadocia; but he could not fix upon any thing while his friends stayed with him. After revolving various expedients in his mind, which was now almost as changeable as his fortune, he drew up the forces, and endeavoured to animate the Greeks and the barbarians. On the other hand, the *Phalanx* and the *Argyraspides* bade him be of good courage, assuring him, that the enemy would not stand the encounter. For they were veterans who had served under Philip and Alexander, and, like so many champions of the ring, never had a fall to that day. Many of them were seventy years of age, and none less than sixty. So that when they charged the troops of Antigonus, they cried out, "Villains, you fight against your fathers!" Then they fell furiously upon his infantry, and soon routed them. Indeed none of the battalions could stand the shock, and most of them were cut in pieces upon the spot. But though Antigonus had such bad success in this quarter, his cavalry were victorious, through the weak and dastardly behaviour of Peucestas, and took all the baggage. Antigonus
was

was a man who had an excellent presence of mind on the most trying occasions, and here the place and the occasion befriended him. It was a plain open country, the soil neither deep nor hard, but, like the seashore, covered with a fine dry sand, which the trampling of so many men and horses, during the action, reduced to a small white dust, that, like a cloud of lime, darkened the air, and intercepted the prospect; so that it was easy for Antigonus to take the baggage unperceived.

After the battle was over, Teutamus sent some of his corps to Antigonus, to desire him to restore the baggage. He told them, he would not only return the *Argyraspides* their baggage, but treat them, in all respects, with the greatest kindness, provided they would put Eumenes in his hands. The *Argyraspides* came into that abominable measure, and agreed to deliver up that brave man alive to his enemies. In pursuance of this scheme, they approached him unsuspected, and planted themselves about him. Some lamented the loss of their baggage; some desired him to assume the spirit of victory, which he had gained; others accused the rest of their commanders. Thus watching their opportunity, they fell upon him, took away his sword, and bound his hands behind him with his own girdle.

Nicanor was sent by Antigonus to receive him. But, as they led him through the midst of the Macedonians, he desired first to speak to them; not for any request he had to make, but upon matters of great importance to *them*. Silence being made, he ascended an eminence, and stretching out his hands, bound as they were, he said: "What trophy, ye vilest of all the Macedonians! what trophy could Antigonus have wished to raise, like this which you are raising, by delivering up your general bound? Was it not base enough to acknowledge yourselves beaten, merely for the sake of your baggage, as if victory dwelt among your goods and chattels, and
" not

“ not upon the points of your swords ; but you must
 “ also send your general as a ransom for that baggage?
 “ For my part, though thus led, I am not conquer-
 “ ed ; I have beaten the enemy, and am ruined by
 “ my fellow-soldiers. But I conjure you by the god
 “ of armies*, and the awful deities who preside over
 “ oaths, to kill me here with your own hands. If
 “ my life be taken by another, the deed will still be
 “ yours. Nor will Antigonus complain, if you take
 “ the work out of his hands ; for he wants not Eu-
 “ menes alive, but Eumenes dead. If you choose
 “ not to be the immediate instruments, loose but one
 “ of my hands, and that shall do the business. If
 “ you will not trust me with a sword, throw me,
 “ bound as I am, to wild beasts. If you comply
 “ with this last request, I acquit you of all guilt with
 “ respect to me, and declare you have behaved to
 “ your general like the best and honestest of men.”

The rest of the troops received this speech with
 sighs and tears, and every expression of sorrow ; but
 the *Argyraspides* cried out, “ Lead him on, and at-
 “ tend not to his trifling. For it is no such great mat-
 “ ter if an execrable Chersonesian, who has harassed
 “ the Macedonians with infinite wars, have cause to
 “ lament his fate ; as it would be, if the best of Alex-
 “ ander’s and Philip’s soldiers should be deprived of
 “ the fruit of their labours, and have their bread to
 “ beg in their old age. And have not our wives al-
 “ ready passed three nights with our enemies ?” So
 saying, they drove him forward.

Antigonus fearing some bad consequence from the
 crowd (for there was not a man left in his camp), sent
 out ten of his best elephants, and a corps of spearmen,
 who were Medes and Parthians, to keep them off.
 He could not bear to have Eumenes brought into his
 presence, because of the former friendly connections
 there had been between them. And when those who

* Jupiter.

took the charge of him, asked, in what manner he would have him kept? He said, "So as you would keep an elephant or a lion." Nevertheless, he soon felt some impressions of pity, and ordered them to take off his heavy chains, and allow him a servant who had been accustomed to wait upon him. He likewise permitted such of his friends as desired it, to pass whole days with him, and to bring him the necessary refreshments. Thus he spent some considerable time in deliberating how to dispose of him, and sometimes listened to the applications and promises of Nearchus the Cretan, and his own son Demetrius, who made it a point to save him. But all the other officers insisted that he should be put to death, and urged Antigonus to give directions for it.

One day, we are told, Eumenes asked his keeper, Onomarchus, "Why Antigonus, now he had got his enemy into his power, did not either immediately dispatch him, or generously release him?" Onomarchus answered, in a contemptuous manner, "That in the battle, and not now, he should have been so ready to meet death." To which Eumenes replied, "By heaven I was so. Ask those who ventured to engage me, if I was not. I do not know that I met with a better man than myself."—"Well," said Onomarchus, "now you have found a better man than yourself, why do not you patiently wait his time?"

When Antigonus had resolved upon his death, he gave orders that he should have no kind of food. By this means, in two or three days' time, he began to draw near his end: and then Antigonus, being obliged to decamp upon some sudden emergency, sent in an executioner to dispatch him. The body he delivered to his friends, allowing them to burn it honourably, and to collect the ashes into a silver urn, in order to their being sent to his wife and children.

Thus died Eumenes: and divine justice did not go far to seek instruments of vengeance against the officers

officers and soldiers who had betrayed him*. Antigonus himself, detesting the *Argyraspides* as impious and savage wretches, ordered Ibyrtius, governor of Arachosia†, under whose direction he put them, to take every method to destroy them; so that not one of them might return to Macedonia, or set his eyes upon the Grecian sea.

* Antigenes, commander in chief of the *Silver Shields*, was, by order of Antigonus, put in a coffin, and burnt alive. Eudamus, Celbanus, and many others of the enemies of Eumenes, experienced a like fate.

† A province of Parthia, near Bactriana.

SERTORIUS *and* EUMENES
compared.

THESE are the most remarkable particulars which history has given us concerning Eumenes and Sertorius. And now to come to the comparison. We observe first, that though they were both strangers, aliens, and exiles, they had, to the end of their days, the command of many warlike nations, and great and respectable armies. Sertorius, indeed, has this advantage, that his fellow-warriors ever freely gave up the command to him on account of his superior merit; whereas many disputed the post of honour with Eumenes, and it was his actions only that obtained it for him. The officers of Sertorius were ambitious to have him at their head; but those who acted under Eumenes, never had recourse to him, till experience had shewed them their own incapacity, and the necessity of employing another.

The one was a Roman, and commanded the Spaniards and Lusitanians, who for many years had been subject to Rome; the other was a Chersonesian, and commanded the Macedonians, who had conquered the whole world. It should be considered too, that Sertorius the more easily made his way because he was a senator, and had led armies before; but Eumenes,

SERTORIUS *and* EUMENES *compared.* 63

menes, with the disreputation of having been only a secretary, raised himself to the first military employments. Nor had Eumenes only fewer advantages, but greater impediments also in the road to honour. Numbers opposed him openly, and as many formed private designs against his life; whereas no man ever opposed Sertorius in public, and it was not till toward the last, that a few of his own party entered upon a private scheme to destroy him. The dangers of Sertorius were generally over, when he had gained a victory; and the dangers of Eumenes grew out of his very victories, among those who envied his success.

Their military performances were equal and similar, but their dispositions were very different. Eumenes loved war, and had a native spirit of contention; Sertorius loved peace and tranquillity. The former might have lived in great security and honour, if he would not have stood in the way of the great; but he rather chose to tread for ever in the uneasy paths of power, though he had to fight every step he took: the latter would gladly have withdrawn from the tumult of public affairs; but was forced to continue the war, to defend himself against his restless persecutors. For Antigonus would have taken pleasure in employing Eumenes, if he would have given up the dispute for superiority, and been content with the station next to his; whereas Pompey would not grant Sertorius his request to live a private citizen. Hence, the one voluntarily engaged in war, for the sake of gaining the chief command; the other involuntarily took the command, because he could not live in peace. Eumenes, therefore, in his passion for the camp, preferred ambition to safety; Sertorius was an able warrior, but employed his talents only for the safety of his person. The one was not apprized of his impending fate; the other expected it every moment. The one had the candid praise of confidence in his friends; the other incurred the censure of weakness; for he
would

64 SERTORIUS *and* EUMENES *compared.*

would have fled *, but could not. The death of Sertorius did no dishonour to his life; he suffered that from his fellow-soldiers, which the enemy could not have effected. Eumenes could not avoid his chains, yet after the indignity of chains †, he wanted to live; so that he could neither escape death, nor meet it as he ought to have done; but, by having recourse to mean applications and intreaties, put his mind in the power of the man who was only master of his body.

* Upon notice of the intention of his enemies to destroy him after the battle, he deliberated whether he should give up the victory to Antigonus, or retire into Cappadocia.

† This does not appear from Plutarch's account of him. He only desired Antigonus either to give immediate orders for his execution, or to shew his generosity in releasing him.

A G E S I L A U S.

ARCHIDAMUS*, the son of Xeuxidamus, after having governed the Lacedæmonians with a very respectable character, left behind him two sons; the one named Agis, whom he had by Lampito†, a woman of an illustrious family; the other much younger, named Agefilaus, whom he had by Eupolia, the daughter of Melisippidas. As the crown, by law, was to descend to Agis, Agefilaus had nothing to expect but a private station, and therefore had a common Lacedæmonian education; which, though hard in respect of diet, and full of laborious exercises, was well calculated to teach the youth obedience. Hence, Simonides is said to have called that famed city *the man-subduing* Sparta, because it was the principal tendency of her discipline to make the citizens obedient and submissive to the laws; and she trained her youth as the colt is trained to the menage. The law does not lay the young princes, who are educated for the throne, under the same necessity. But Agefilaus was singular in this, that before he came to govern, he had learnt to obey. Hence it was that he accommodated himself with a better grace to his subjects than any other of the kings; having added to his princely talents and inclinations, a humane manner and popular civility.

* Archidamus II.

† Lampito, or Lampido, was sister to Archidamus by the father's side. Vid. PLAT. ALCIBIAD.

While he was yet in one of the classes, or societies, of boys, Lyfander had that honourable attachment to him which the Spartans distinguish with the name of love. He was charmed with his ingenuous modesty. For, though he had a spirit above his companions, an ambition to excel, which made him unwilling to sit down without the prize, and a vigour and impetuosity which could not be conquered or borne down, yet he was equally remarkable for his gentleness, where it was necessary to obey. At the same time, it appeared that his obedience was not owing to fear but to a principle of honour, and that throughout his whole conduct he dreaded disgrace more than toil.

He was lame of one leg; but that defect, during his youth, was covered by the agreeable turn of the rest of his person; and the easy and cheerful manner in which he bore it, and his being the first to rally himself upon it, always made it the less regarded. Nay, that defect made his spirit of enterprize more remarkable; for he never declined on that account any undertaking, however difficult or laborious.

We have no portrait or statue of him. He would not suffer any to be made while he lived, and at his death he utterly forbade it. We are only told, that he was a little man, and that he had not a commanding aspect. But a perpetual vivacity and cheerfulness, attended with a talent for raillery, which was expressed without any severity either of voice or look, made him more agreeable even in age than the young and the handsome. Theophrastus tells us, the *Ephori* fined Archidamus for marrying a little woman. "She will bring us," said they, "a race of pygmies, instead of kings."

During the reign of Agis, Alcibiades, upon his quitting Sicily, came an exile to Lacedæmon. And he had not been there long, before he was suspected of a criminal commerce with Timæa, the wife of Agis. Agis would not acknowledge the child which she had for his, but said it was the son of Alcibiades. Duris informs

informs us, that the queen was not displeas'd at the supposition, and that she used to whisper to her women, the child should be call'd Alcibiades, not Leotychidas. He adds, that Alcibiades himself scrupled not to say, "He did not approach Timæa to gratify his appetite, but from an ambition to give kings to Sparta." However, he was oblig'd to fly from Sparta, lest Agis should revenge the injury. And that prince looking upon Leotychidas with an eye of suspicion, did not take notice of him as a son. Yet, in his last sickness, Leotychidas prevail'd upon him, by his tears and intreaties, to acknowledge him as such before many witnesses.

Notwithstanding this public declaration, Agis was no sooner dead, than Lyfander, who had vanquish'd the Athenians at sea, and had great power and interest in Sparta, advanced Agefilaus to the throne; alleging that Leotychidas was a bastard, and consequently had no right to it. Indeed, the generality of the citizens, knowing the virtues of Agefilaus, and that he had been educated with them in all the severity of the Spartan discipline, join'd with pleasure in the scheme.

There was then at Sparta a diviner, named Diopithes, well vers'd in ancient prophecies, and suppos'd an able interpreter of every thing relating to the gods. This man insist'd, that it was contrary to the divine will, that a lame man should sit on the throne of Sparta; and on the day the point was to be decid'd, he publicly read this oracle—

Beware, proud Sparta, lest a maim'd empire
Thy boasted strength impair; far other woes
Than thou behold'st, await thee—borne away
By the strong tide of war——*

Lyfander observ'd upon this, that if the Spartans were solicitous to act literally according to the oracle,

* The two legs of the Spartan constitution were the two kings, which therefore must be in a maim'd and ruin'd state when one of them was gone. In fact, the consequence produc'd not a just and good monarch, but a tyrant.

they ought to beware of Leotychidas. For that Heaven did not consider it as a matter of importance, if the king happened to have a lame foot: the thing to be guarded against, was the admission of a person who was not a genuine descendant of Hercules; for that would make the kingdom itself lame. Agefilaus added, that Neptune had borne witness to the bastardy of Leotychidas, in throwing Agis out of his bed by an earthquake*; ten months after which, and more, Leotychidas was born; though Agis did not cohabit with Timæa during that time.

By these ways and means Agefilaus gained the diadem, and at the same time was put in possession of the private estate of Agis; Leotychidas being rejected on account of his illegitimacy. Observing, however, that his relations by the mother's side, though men of merit, were very poor, he gave a moiety of the estate among them; by which means the inheritance procured him respect and honour, instead of envy and aversion.

Xenophon tells us, that by obedience to the laws of his country, Agefilaus gained so much power, that his will was not disputed. The case was this. The principal authority was then in the hands of the *Ephori* and the senate. The *Ephori* were annual magistrates, and the senators had their office for life. They were both appointed as a barrier against the power of the kings, as we have observed in the life of Lycurgus. The kings, therefore, had an old and hereditary antipathy to them, and perpetual disputes subsisted between them. But Lyfander took a different course. He gave up all thoughts of opposition and contention, and paid his court to them on every occasion; taking care, in all his enterprizes, to set out under their auspices. If he was called, he went faster than usual: if he was upon his throne, administering justice, he rose up when the *Ephori* approached: if any one of them was admitted a member of the senate, he

* See Xenophon, Grecian Hist. Book iii.

sent him a robe and an ox *, as marks of honour. Thus, while he seemed to be adding to the dignity and importance of their body, he was privately increasing his own strength, and the authority of the crown, through their support and attachment.

In his conduct with respect to the other citizens, he behaved better as an enemy than as a friend. If he was severe to his enemies, he was not unjustly so; his friends he countenanced even in their unjust pursuits. If his enemies performed any thing extraordinary, he was ashamed not to take honourable notice of it; his friends he could not correct when they did amiss. On the contrary, it was his pleasure to support them, and go the same lengths they did; for he thought no service dishonourable which he did in the way of friendship. Nay, if his adversaries fell into any misfortune, he was the first to sympathize with them, and ready to give them his assistance, if they desired it. By these means he gained the hearts of all his people.

The *Ephori* saw this, and, in their fear of his increasing power, imposed a fine upon him; alleging this as a reason, that whereas the citizens ought to be in common, he appropriated them to himself. As the writers upon physics say, that if war and discord were banished the universe, the heavenly bodies would stop their course, and all generation and motion would cease, by reason of that perfect harmony; so the great law-giver infused a spirit of ambition and contention into the Spartan constitution, as an incentive to virtue, and wished always to see some difference and dispute among the good and virtuous. He thought, that general complaisance, which leads men to yield to the next proposal, without exploring each other's intentions, and without debating on the consequences, was an inert principle, and deserved not the name of

* Emblems of magistracy and patriotism.

harmony*. Some imagine that Homer saw this; and that he would not have made Agamemnon rejoice†, when Ulysses and Achilles contended in such opprobrious terms, if he had not expected that some great benefit would arise to their affairs in general, from this particular quarrel among the great. This point, however, cannot be agreed to without some exception; for violent dissensions are pernicious to a state, and productive of the greatest dangers.

Agefilaus had not long been seated on the throne, before accounts were brought from Asia, that the king of Persia was preparing a great fleet to dispossess the Lacedæmonians of their dominion of the sea. Lyfander was very desirous to be sent again into Asia, that he might support his friends whom he had left governors and masters of the cities; many of whom, having abused their authority to the purposes of violence and injustice, were banished or put to death by the people. He therefore persuaded Agefilaus to enter Asia with his forces, and fix the seat of war at the greatest distance from Greece, before the Persian could have finished his preparations. At the same time he instructed his friends in Asia, to send deputies to Lacedæmon, to desire Agefilaus might be appointed to that command.

Agefilaus received their proposals in full assembly of the people, and agreed to undertake the war, on condition they would give him thirty Spartans for his officers and counsellors, a select corps of two thousand newly enfranchised *helots*, and six thousand of the allies. All this was readily decreed, through the influence of Lyfander, and Agefilaus set out with the thirty Spartans. Lyfander was soon at the head of the

* Upon the same principle, we need not be greatly alarmed at party disputes in our own nation. They will not expire but with liberty. And such ferments are often necessary to throw off vicious humours.

† *Odysey*, Lib. viii.

council,

council, not only on account of his reputation and power, but the friendship of Agesilaus, who thought the procuring him this command a greater thing than the raising him to the throne.

While his forces were assembling at Geræstus, he went with his friends to Aulis; and passing the night there, he dreamed that a person addressed him in this manner: "You are sensible that, since Agamemnon, none has been appointed captain-general of all Greece, but yourself, the king of Sparta; and you are the only person who have arrived at that honour. Since, therefore, you command the same people, and go against the same enemies with him, as well as take your departure from the same place, you ought to propitiate the goddesses with the same sacrifice, which he offered here before he failed."

Agesilaus at first thought of the sacrifice of Iphigenia, whom her father offered in obedience to the soothsayers. This circumstance, however, did not give him any pain. In the morning he related the vision to his friends, and told them he would honour the goddesses with what a superior Being might reasonably be supposed to take pleasure in, and not imitate the savage ignorance of his predecessor. In consequence of which, he crowned a hind with flowers, and delivered her to his own soothsayer, with orders that he should perform the ceremony, and not the person appointed to that office by the Bœotians. The first magistrates of Bœotia, incensed at this innovation, sent their officers to insist that Agesilaus should not sacrifice contrary to the laws and customs of Bœotia. And the officers not only gave him such notice, but threw the thighs of the victim from the altar. Agesilaus was highly offended at this treatment, and departed in great wrath with the Thebans. Nor could he conceive any hopes of success after such an omen; on the contrary, he concluded his operations would be incomplete, and his expedition not answer the intention.

When he came to Ephesus, the power and interest of Lyfander appeared in a very obnoxious light. The gates of that minister were continually crowded, and all applications were made to him; as if Agefilaus had only the name and badges of command, to save the forms of law, and Lyfander had in fact the power, and all business were to pass through his hands. Indeed, none of the generals who were sent to Asia ever had greater sway, or were more dreaded than he; none ever served their friends more effectually, or humbled their enemies so much. These were things fresh in every one's memory; and when they compared also the plain, the mild, and popular behaviour of Agefilaus, with the stern, the short, and authoritative manner of Lyfander, they submitted to the latter entirely, and attended to him alone.

The other Spartans first expressed their resentment, because that attention to Lyfander made them appear rather as his ministers, than as counsellors to the king. Afterwards Agefilaus himself was piqued at it. For, though he had no envy in his nature, or jealousy of honours paid to merit, yet he was ambitious of glory, and firm in asserting his claim to it. Besides, he was apprehensive that if any great actions were performed, it would be imputed to Lyfander, on account of the superior light in which he had still been considered.

The method he took to obviate it, was this. His first step was, to oppose the counsels of Lyfander, and to pursue measures different from those, for which he was most earnest. Another step was, to reject the petitions of all who appeared to apply to him through the interest of that minister. In matters, too, which were brought before the king in a judicial way, those against whom Lyfander exerted himself, were sure to gain their cause; and they for whom he appeared, could scarce escape without a fine. As these things happened not casually, but constantly and of set purpose, Lyfander perceived the cause, and concealed it not from his friends. He told them, it was on his ac-
count

count they were disgraced, and desired them to pay their court to the king, and to those who had greater interest with him than himself. These proceedings seemed invidious, and intended to depreciate the king: Agefilaus, therefore, to mortify him still more, appointed him his carver: and we are told, he said before a large company, "Now let them go and pay their court to my carver."

Lyfander, unable to bear this last instance of contempt, said, "Agefilaus, you know very well how to lessen your friends." Agefilaus answered, "I know very well who want to be greater than myself." "But perhaps," said Lyfander, "that has rather been so represented to you, than attempted by me. Place me, however, where I may serve you, without giving you the least umbrage."

Upon this, Agefilaus appointed him his lieutenant in the Hellespont, where he persuaded Spithridates, a Perlian, in the province of Pharnabazus, to come over to the Greeks, with a considerable treasure, and two hundred horse. Yet he retained his resentment, and nourishing the remembrance of the affront he had received, considered how he might deprive the two families* of the privilege of giving kings to Sparta, and open the way to that high station to all the citizens. And it seems that he would have raised great commotions in pursuit of his revenge, if he had not been killed in his expedition into Bœotia. Thus ambitious spirits, when they go beyond certain bounds, do much more harm than good to the community. For if Lyfander was to blame, as in fact he was, in indulging an unreasonable avidity of honour, Agefilaus might have known other methods to correct the fault of a man of his character and spirit. But, under the influence of the same passion, the one knew not how to pay proper respect to his general, nor the other how to bear the imperfections of his friend.

* The Eurytionidæ and the Agidæ.

At first Tisaphernes was afraid of Agefilaus, and undertook by treaty, that the king would leave the Grecian cities to be governed by their own laws: but afterwards thinking his strength sufficiently increased, he declared war. This was an event very agreeable to Agefilaus. He hoped great things from this expedition*; and he considered it as a circumstance which would reflect dishonour upon himself, that Xenophon could conduct ten thousand Greeks from the heart of Asia to the sea, and beat the king of Persia whenever his forces thought proper to engage him; if he, at the head of the Lacedæmonians, who were masters both at sea and land, could not distinguish himself before the Greeks by some great and memorable stroke.

To revenge, therefore, the perjury of Tisaphernes by an artifice which justice recommended, he pretended immediately to march into Caria; and when the barbarian had drawn his forces to that quarter, he turned short, and entered Phrygia. There he took many cities, and made himself master of immense treasures; by which he shewed his friends, that to violate a treaty, is to despise the gods; whilst to deceive an enemy is not only just but glorious, and the way to add profit to pleasure: but, as he was inferior in cavalry, and the liver of the victim appeared without a head, he retired to Ephesus, to raise that sort of troops which he wanted. The method he took was, to insist that every man of substance, if he did not choose to serve in person, should provide a horse and a man. Many accepted the alternative; and, instead of a parcel of indifferent combatants †, such as the rich would have made, he soon got a numerous and

* He told the Persian ambassadors, "He was much obliged to their matter for the step he had taken, since by the violation of his oath he had made the gods enemies to Persia, and friends to Greece."

† Ψιλῶν ὀπλιῶν, the present corrupt reading should be altered from a passage in the Apophthegms (Ed. St. p. 369.) to δειλῶν καὶ πλευσίων. The passage is this:—ὡς ταχὺ συνηχθῆσαν καὶ ἵπποι καὶ ἀνδρῆς ἐπιηρότεροι ἀπὸ ΔΕΙΛῶΝ ΚΑΙ ΠΛΟΥΣΙῶΝ.

respectable

respectable cavalry. For those who did not choose to serve at all, or not to serve as horse, hired others who wanted neither courage nor inclination. In this he professedly imitated Agamemnon, who for a good mare excused a dastardly rich man the service*.

One day he ordered his commissaries to sell the prisoners, but to strip them first. Their clothes found many purchasers; but as to the prisoners themselves, their skins being soft and white, by reason of their having lived so much within doors, the spectators only laughed at them, thinking they would be of no service as slaves. Whereupon Agesilaus, who stood by at the auction, said to his troops, "These are the persons whom ye fight with;" and then pointing to the rich spoils, "Those are things ye fight for."

When the season called him into the field again, he gave it out that Lydia was his object. In this he did not deceive Tifaphernes: that general deceived himself. For, giving no heed to the declarations of Agesilaus, because he had been imposed upon by them before, he concluded he would now enter Caria, a country not convenient for cavalry, in which his strength did not lie. Agesilaus, as he had proposed, went and sat down on the plains of Sardis, and Tifaphernes was forced to march thither in great haste with succours. The Persian as he advanced with his cavalry, cut off a number of the Greeks who were scattered up and down for plunder. Agesilaus, however, considered that the enemy's infantry could not yet be come up, whereas he had all his forces about him; and therefore resolved to give battle imme-

* Then Menelaus his Pedargus brings,
And the fam'd courser of the king of kings:
Whom rich Echeplus (more rich than brave)
To 'scape the wars, to Agamemnon gave,
(Æthe her name) at home to end his days,
Base wealth preferring to eternal praise

POPE, II. xsiii.

Thus Scipio, when he went into Africa, ordered the Sicilians either to attend him, or to give him horses or men.

diately.

diately. Pursuant to this resolution, he mixed his light-armed foot with the horse, and ordered them to advance swiftly to the charge, while he was bringing up the heavy-armed troops, which would not be far behind. The barbarians were soon put to flight; the Greeks pursued them, took their camp, and killed great numbers.

In consequence of this success, they could pillage the king's country in full security, and had all the satisfaction to see Tisaphernes, a man of abandoned character, and one of the greatest enemies to their name and nation, properly punished. For the king immediately sent Tithraustes against him, who cut off his head. At the same time he desired Agesilaus to grant him peace, promising him large sums*, on condition that he would evacuate his dominions. Agesilaus answered, "His country was the sole arbiter of peace. For his own part, he rather chose to enrich his soldiers than himself; and the great honour among the Greeks, was to carry home spoils and not presents from their enemies." Nevertheless, to gratify Tithraustes, for destroying Tisaphernes, the common enemy of the Greeks, he decamped and retired into Phrygia, taking thirty talents of that viceroy to defray the charges of his march.

As he was upon the road, he received the *scytale* from the magistrates of Lacedæmon, which invested him with the command of the navy as well as army; an honour which that city never granted to any one but himself. He was, indeed (as Theopompus somewhere says), confessedly the greatest and most illustrious man of his time; yet he placed his dignity rather in his virtue than his power. Notwithstanding, there was this flaw in his character: when he had the

* He promised also to restore the Greek cities in Asia to their liberty, on condition that they paid the established tribute; and he hoped (he said) that this condescension would persuade Agesilaus to accept the peace, and return home; the rather, because Tisaphernes, who was guilty of the first breach, was punished as he deserved.

conduct

conduct of the navy given him, he committed that charge to Pisander, when there were other officers of greater age and abilities at hand. Pisander was his wife's brother, and, in compliment to her, he respected that alliance more than the public good.

He took up his own quarters in the province of Pharnabazus, where he not only lived in plenty, but raised considerable subsidies. From thence he proceeded to Paphlagonia, and drew Cotys, the king of that country, into his interest, who had been some time desirous of such a connection, on account of the virtue and honour which marked his character. Spithridates, who was the first person of consequence that came over from Pharnabazus, accompanied Agesilaus in all his expeditions, and took a share in all his dangers. This Spithridates had a son, a handsome youth, for whom Agesilaus had a particular regard, and a beautiful daughter in the flower of her age, whom he married to Cotys. Cotys gave him a thousand horse, and two thousand men draughted from his light-armed troops, and with these he returned to Phrygia.

Agesilaus committed great ravages in that province; but Pharnabazus did not wait to oppose him, or trust his own garrisons. Instead of that, he took his most valuable things with him, and moved from place to place to avoid a battle. Spithridates, however, watched him so narrowly, that with the assistance of Herippidas*, the Spartan, at last he made himself master of his camp, and all his treasures. Herippidas made it his business to examine what part of the baggage was secreted, and compelled the barbarians to restore it; he looked, indeed, with a keen eye, into every thing. This provoked Spithridates to such a degree, that he immediately marched off with the Paphlagonians to Sardis.

* Herippidas was at the head of the new council of thirty, sent to Agesilaus the second year of the war.

There

There was nothing in the whole war that touched Agesilaus more nearly than this. Besides the pain it gave him to think he had lost Spithridates, and a considerable body of men with him, he was ashamed of a mark of avarice and illiberal meanness, from which he had ever studied to keep both himself and his country. These were causes of uneasiness that might be publicly acknowledged; but he had a private, and more sensible one, in his attachment to the son of Spithridates; though while he was with him, he had made it a point to combat that attachment.

One day Megabates approached to salute him, and Agesilaus declined that mark of his affection. The youth, after this, was more distant in his addresses. Then Agesilaus was sorry for the repulse he had given him, and pretended to wonder why Megabates kept at such a distance. His friends told him, he must blame himself for rejecting his former application. "He would still," said they, "be glad to pay his most obliging respects to you; but take care you do not reject them again." Agesilaus was silent some time; and when he had considered the thing, he said, "Do not mention it to him. For this second victory over myself gives me more pleasure, than I should have in turning all I look upon to gold." This resolution of his held while Megabates was with him; but he was so much affected at his departure, that it is hard to say how he would have behaved, if he had found him again.

After this, Pharnabazus desired a conference with him; and Apollophanes of Cyzicus, at whose house they had both been entertained, procured an interview. Agesilaus came first to the place appointed, with his friends, and sat down upon the long grass under a shade, to wait for Pharnabazus. When the Persian grandee came, his servants spread soft skins and beautiful pieces of tapestry for him; but, upon seeing Agesilaus so seated, he was ashamed to make use of them, and placed himself carelessly upon the grass

grafs in the fame manner, though his robes were delicate and of the fineft colours.

After mutual falutations, Pharnabazus opened the conference; and he had juft caufe of complaint againft the Lacedæmonians, after the fervices he had done them in the Athenian war, and their late ravages in his country. Agefilaus faw the Spartans were at a lofs for an anfwer, and kept their eyes fixed upon the ground; for they knew that Pharnabazus was injured. However the Spartan general found an anfwer, which was as follows: “ While we were friends to the king
“ of Perfia, we treated him and his in a friendly
“ manner: now we are enemies, you can expect
“ nothing from us but hoftilities. Therefore, while
“ you, Pharnabazus, choofe to be a vaffal to the king,
“ we wound him through your fides. Only be a
“ friend and ally to the Greeks, and fhake off that
“ vaffalage, and from that moment you have a right
“ to confider thefe battalions, thefe arms and fhips,
“ in fhort, all that we are or have, as guardians of
“ your poffeffions, and your liberty; without which
“ nothing is great or defirable among men*.”

Pharnabazus then explained himfelf in thefe terms:
“ If the king fends another lieutenant in my room, I
“ will be for you; but while he continues me in the
“ government, I will, to the beft of my power, repel
“ force with force, and make reprisals upon you for
“ him.” Agefilaus, charmed with this reply, took
his hand, and rifing up with him, faid, “ Heaven
“ grant, that with fuch fentiments as thefe, you may
“ be our friend, and not our enemy!”

As Pharnabazus and his company were going away, his fon, who was behind, ran up to Agefilaus, and faid with a fmile, “ Sir, I enter with you into the
“ rights of hofpitality.” At the fame time he gave

* He added, “ However, if we continue at war, I will for the future avoid your territories as much as poffible, and rather forage and raife contributions in any other province.” XEN. Grec. War, B. iv.

him

him a javelin which he had in his hand. Agefilatus received it; and delighted with his looks and kind regards, looked about for something handsome to give a youth of his princely appearance in return. His secretary, Adæus, happening to have a horse with magnificent furniture just by, he ordered it to be taken off and given to the young man. Nor did he forget him afterwards. In process of time this Persian was driven from his home by his brothers, and forced to take refuge in Peloponnesus. Agefilatus then took him into his protection, and served him on all occasions. The Persian had a favourite in the wrestling ring at Athens, who wanted to be introduced at the Olympic games; but as he was past the proper age, they did not choose to admit him*. In this case the Persian applied to Agefilatus, who, willing to oblige him in this as well as in other things, procured the young man the admission he desired, though not without much difficulty.

Agefilatus, indeed, in other respects, was strictly and inflexibly just; but where a man's friends were concerned, he thought a rigid regard to justice a mere pretence. There is still extant, a short letter of his to Hydrieus the Carian, which is a proof of what we have said. "If Nicias is innocent, acquit him: if he be not innocent, acquit him on my account: however, be sure to acquit him."

Such was the general character of Agefilatus, as a friend. There were, indeed, times when his attachments gave way to the exigencies of state. Once being obliged to decamp in a hurry, he was leaving a favourite sick behind him. The favourite called after him, and earnestly entreated him to come back; upon which he returned and said, "How little consistent are love and prudence!" This particular we have from Hieronymus the philosopher.

* Sometimes boys had a share in these exhibitions, who after a certain age were excluded the lists.

Agefilaus had been now two years at the head of the army, and was become the general subject of discourse in the upper provinces. His wisdom, his disinterestedness, his moderation, was the theme they dwelt upon with pleasure. Whenever he made an excursion, he lodged in the temples most renowned for sanctity: and whereas on many occasions we do not choose that men should see what we are about, he was desirous to have the gods inspectors and witnesses of his conduct. Among so many thousands of soldiers as he had, there was scarce one who had a worse or a harder bed than he. He was so fortified against heat and cold, that none was so well prepared as himself for whatever seasons the climate should produce.

The Greeks in Asia never saw a more agreeable spectacle, than when the Persian governors and generals, who had been insufferably elated with power, and had rolled in riches and luxury, humbly submitting and paying their court to a man in a coarse cloak, and, upon one laconic word, conforming to his sentiments, or rather transforming themselves into another shape. Many thought that line of Timotheus applicable on this occasion;

MARS is the god; and Greece receives not GOLD.

All Asia was now ready to revolt from the Persians, Agefilaus brought the cities under excellent regulations, and settled their police, without putting to death or banishing a single subject. After which he resolved to change the seat of war, and to remove it from the Grecian sea to the heart of Persia; that the king might have to fight for Ecbatana and Susa, instead of sitting at his ease there, to bribe the orators, and hire the states of Greece to destroy each other. But amidst these schemes of his, Epicydidas the Spartan came to acquaint him, that Sparta was involved in a Grecian war, and that the *Ephori* had sent him orders to come home and defend his own country.

Unhappy Greeks! barbarians to each other!

What better name can we give that envy which incited them to conspire and combine for their mutual destruction, at a time when Fortune had taken them upon her wings, and was carrying them against the barbarians; and yet they clipped her wings with their own hands, and brought the war home to themselves, which was happily removed into a foreign country*. I cannot, indeed, agree with Demaratus of Corinth, when he says, those Greeks fell short of a great happiness, who did not live to see Alexander seated on the throne of Darius. But I think the Greeks had just cause for tears, when they considered that they left that to Alexander and the Macedonians, which might have been effected by the generals whom they flew in the fields of Leuctra, Coronea, Corinth, and Arcadia.

However, of all the actions of Agesilaus, there is none which had greater propriety, or was a stronger instance of his obedience to the laws, and justice to the public, than his immediate return to Sparta. Hannibal, though his affairs were in a desperate condition, and he was almost beaten out of Italy, made a difficulty of obeying the summons of his countrymen, to go and defend them in a war at home. And Alexander made a jest of the information he received, that Agis had fought a battle with Antipater: he said, "It seems, my friends, that while we were conquering Darius here, there was a combat of mice in Arcadia." How happy then was Sparta in the respect which Agesilaus paid her, and in his reverence for the laws! No sooner was the *scytale* brought him, though

* That corruption which brought the states of Greece to take Persian gold, undoubtedly deserves censure. Yet we must take leave to observe, that the divisions and jealousies which reigned in Greece, were the support of its liberties, and that Persia was not conquered, till nothing but the shadow of these liberties remained. Were there, indeed, a number of little independent states which made justice the constant rule of their conduct to each other, and which would be always ready to unite upon any alarm, from a formidable enemy, they might preserve their liberties inviolate for ever.

in the midst of his power and good fortune, than he resigned, and abandoned his flourishing prospects, failed home, and left his great work unfinished. Such was the regret his friends as well as allies had for the loss of him, that it was a strong confutation of the saying of Demonstratus the Phæacian, "That the Lacedæmonians excelled in public, and the Athenians in private characters." For, though he had great merit as a king and a general, yet still he was a more desirable friend, and an agreeable companion.

As the Persian money had the impress of an archer, he said, "He was driven out of Asia by ten thousand of the king's archers*. For the orators of Athens and Thebes, having been bribed with so many pieces of money, had excited their countrymen to take up arms against Sparta.

When he had crossed the Hellespont, he marched through Thrace without asking leave of any of the barbarians. He only desired to know of each people, "Whether they would have him pass as a friend, or as an enemy." All received him with tokens of friendship, and showed him all the civilities in their power on his way, but the Trallians †, of whom Xerxes is said to have bought a passage: they demanded of Agesilaus a hundred talents of silver, and as many women. He answered the messengers ironically, "Why did not they then come to receive them?" At the same time he marched forward, and finding them drawn up to oppose him, he gave them battle, and routed them with great slaughter.

* Tithraustes sent Timocrates of Rhodes⁴ into Greece with fifty talents, which he distributed at Thebes, Argos, and Corinth; but, according to Xenophon, Athens had no share in that distribution.

† Beside the Trallians in Lydia, there was a people of that name in Illyricum, upon the confines of Thrace and Macedonia. So at least, according to Dacier, Theopompus (ap. Steph.) testifies. One of the MSS. instead of Τρωάδης gives us Τραχάδης. In Op. Mor. 373. 21. they are called Τρωάδης. Possibly it might be the Triballi.

He sent some of his people to put the same question to the king of Macedon; who answered, "I will consider of it." "Let him consider," said he, "in the mean time we march. The king, surprised and awed by his spirit, desired him to pass as a friend.

The Theffalians were confederates with the enemies of Sparta, and therefore he laid waste their territories. To the city of Larissa, indeed, he offered his friendship, by his ambassadors Xenocles and Scythia: but the people seized them and put them in prison. His troops so resented this affront, that they would have had him go and lay siege to the place. Agefilaus, however, was of another mind. He said, "He would not lose one of his ambassadors for gaining all Theffaly;" and he afterwards found means to recover them by treaty. Nor are we to wonder that Agefilaus took this step, since, upon news being brought him that a great battle had been fought near Corinth, in which many brave men were suddenly taken off, but that the loss of the Spartans was small in comparison of that of the enemy, he was not elevated in the least. On the contrary, he said, with a deep sigh, "Unhappy Greece! why hast thou destroyed so many brave men with thy own hands, who, had they lived, might have conquered all the barbarians in the world?"

However, as the Pharsalians attacked and harassed him in his march, he engaged them with five hundred horse, and put them to flight. He was so much pleased with his success, that he erected a trophy under mount NARTHACIUM; and he valued himself the more upon it, because with so small a number of his own training, he had beaten a people who reckoned theirs the best cavalry in Greece. Here DIPHRIDAS, one of the *Ephori*, met him, and gave him orders to enter Bæotia immediately. And though his intention was to do it afterwards, when he had strengthened his army with some reinforcements, he thought it was not right to disobey the magistrates. He therefore said to those about him, "Now comes the day, for which
" we

“ we were called out of Asia.” At the same time he sent for two cohorts from the army near Corinth. And the Lacedæmonians did him the honour to cause proclamation to be made at home, that such of the youth as were inclined to go and assist the king, might give in their names. All the young men in Sparta presented themselves for that service; but the magistrates selected only fifty of the ablest, and sent them.

Agésilæus, having passed the straits of Thermopylæ, and traversed Phocis, which was in friendship with the Spartans, entered Bœotia, and encamped upon the plains of Chæronea. He had scarce entrenched himself, when there happened an eclipse of the sun*. At the same time he received an account that Pisander was defeated at sea, and killed, by Pharnabazus and Conon. He was much afflicted with his own loss, as well as that of the public. Yet lest his army which was going to give battle would be discouraged at the news, he ordered his messengers to give out that Pisander was victorious. Nay, he appeared in public with a chaplet of flowers, returned solemn thanks for the pretended success, and sent portions of the sacrifice to his friends.

When he came up to Coronea †, and was in view of the enemy, he drew up his army. The left wing he gave to the Orchomenians, and took the right himself. The Thebans also putting themselves in order of battle, placed themselves on the right, and the Argives on the left. Xenophon says, that this was the most furious battle in his time; and he certainly was

* This eclipse happened on the twenty-ninth of August, in the third year of the ninety-sixth Olympiad, three hundred and ninety-two years before the Christian æra.

† In the printed text it is *Coronea*, nor have we any various reading. But undoubtedly *Chæronea*, upon the Cephissus, was the place where the battle was fought; and we must not confound it with the battle of Coronea, in Thessaly, fought fifty-three years before.

able to judge, for he fought in it for Agefilaus, with whom he returned from Asia.

The first charge was neither violent nor lasting: The Thebans soon routed the Orchomenians, and Agefilaus the Argives. But when both parties were informed that their left wings were broken and ready for flight, both hastened to their relief. At this instant Agefilaus might have secured to himself the victory without any risk, if he would have suffered the Thebans to pass, and then have charged them in the rear*: but borne along by his fury and an ambition to display his valour, he attacked them in front, in the confidence of beating them upon equal terms. They received him, however, with equal vivacity, and great efforts were exerted in all quarters, especially where Agefilaus and his fifty Spartans were engaged. It was a happy circumstance that he had those volunteers, and they could not have come more seasonably. For they fought with the most determined valour, and exposed their persons to the greatest dangers in his defence; yet they could not prevent his being wounded. He was pierced through his armour in many places with spears and swords: and though they formed a ring about him, it was with difficulty they brought him off alive, after having killed numbers of the enemy, and left not a few of their own body dead upon the spot. At last, finding it impracticable to break the Theban front, they were obliged to have recourse to a manœuvre which at first they scorned. They opened their ranks, and let the Thebans pass; after which, observing that they marched in a disorderly manner, they made up again, and took them in flank and rear. They could not however, break them. The Thebans retreated to Helicon, valuing themselves much upon the battle, because their part of the army was a full match for the Lacedæmonians.

* Xenophon gives another turn to the matter; for with him Agefilaus was never wrong.

Agefilaus,

Agésilas, though he was much weakened by his wounds, would not retire to his tent, till he had been carried through all his battalions, and had seen the dead borne off upon their arms. Mean time he was informed, that a party of the enemy had taken refuge in the temple of the Itonian Minerva, and he gave orders that they should be dismissed in safety. Before this temple stood a trophy, which the Bœotians had formerly erected, when, under the conduct of Spar-ton, they had defeated the Athenians, and killed their general Tolmides*.

Early next morning, Agésilas, willing to try whether the Thebans would renew the combat, commanded his men to wear garlands, and the music to play, while he reared and adorned a trophy in token of victory. At the same time the enemy applied to him for leave to carry off their dead; which circumstance confirmed the victory to him. He, therefore, granted them a truce for that purpose, and then caused himself to be carried to Delphi, where they were celebrating the Pythian games. There he ordered a solemn procession in honour of the god, and consecrated to him the tenth of the spoils he had taken in Asia. The offering amounted to a hundred talents.

Upon his return to Sparta, he was greatly beloved by the citizens, who admired the peculiar temperance of his life. For he did not, like other generals, come changed from a foreign country, nor, in fondness for the fashions he had seen there, disdain those of his own. On the contrary, he shewed as much attachment to the Spartan customs, as those who had never passed the Eurotas. He changed not his repasts, his baths, the equipage of his wife, the ornaments of his armour, or the furniture of his house. He even let his doors remain, which were so old that they seemed

* In the battle of Coronea.

to be those set up by Aristodemus *. Xenophon also assures us, that his daughter's carriage was not in the least richer than those of other young ladies. These carriages, called *canathra*, and made use of by the virgins in their solemn processions, were a kind of wooden chaises, made in the form of griffins or goat-stags †. Xenophon has not given us the name of this daughter of Agesilaus: and Dicæarchus is greatly dissatisfied, that neither her name is preserved nor that of the mother of Epaminondas. But we find by some Lacedæmonian inscriptions, that the wife of Agesilaus was called Cleora, and his daughters Apolia and Prolyta ‡. We see also at Lacedæmon the spear he fought with, which differs not from others.

As he observed that many of the citizens valued themselves upon breeding horses for the Olympic games, he persuaded his sister Cynisca to make an attempt that way, and to try her fortune in the chariot-race in person. This he did, to shew the Greeks that a victory of that kind did not depend upon any extraordinary spirit or abilities, but only upon riches and expence.

Xenophon, so famed for wisdom, spent much of his time with him, and he treated him with great respect. He also desired him to send for his sons, that they might have the benefit of a Spartan education, by which they would gain the best knowledge in the world, the knowing how to command, and how to obey.

After the death of Lyfander, he found out a conspiracy, which that general had formed against him immediately after his return from Asia. And he was

* Aristodemus, the son of Hercules, and founder of the royal family of Sparta, flourished eleven hundred years before the Christian æra; so that the gates of Agesilaus's palace, if set up by Aristodemus, had then stood seven hundred and eight years.

† In the original *τραγελάφον*. Cervorum est specie tragelaphus barba tantum et armorum villo distans. P.LIN.

‡ *Eupolia and Proauga*. Cod. Vulcob.

inclined

inclined to shew the public what kind of man Lyfander really was, by exposing an oration found among his papers, which had been composed for him by Cleon of Halicarnassus, and was to have been delivered by him to the people, in order to facilitate the innovations he was meditating in the constitution. But one of the senators having the perusal of it, and finding it a very plausible composition, advised him "not to dig Lyfander out of his grave, but rather to bury the oration with him." The advice appeared reasonable, and he suppressed the paper.

As for the persons who opposed his measures most, he made no open reprisals upon them; but he found means to employ them as generals or governors. When invested with power, they soon shewed what unworthy and avaricious men they were, and in consequence were called to account for their proceedings. Then he used to assist them in their distress, and labour to get them acquitted; by which he made them friends and partizans instead of adversaries; so that at last he had no opposition to contend with. For his royal colleague Agefipolis *, being the son of an exile, very young, and of a mild and modest disposition, interfered not much in the affairs of government. Agefilaus contrived to make him yet more tractable. The two kings, when they were in Sparta, eat at the same table. Agefilaus knew that Agefipolis was open to the impressions of love as well as himself, and therefore constantly turned the conversation upon some amiable young person. He even assisted him in his views that way, and brought him at last to fix upon the same favourite with himself. For at Sparta there is nothing criminal in these attachments: on the contrary (as we have observed in the life of Lycurgus), such love is productive of the greatest modesty and honour, and its characteristic is an ambition to improve the object in virtue.

* Agefipolis was the son of Pausanias.

Agefilaus, thus powerful in Sparta, had the address to get Teleutias, his brother by the mother's side, appointed admiral. After which, he marched against Corinth * with his land forces, and took the long walls; Teleutias assisting his operations by sea. The Argives, who were then in possession of Corinth, were celebrating the Isthmian games; and Agefilaus coming upon them as they were engaged in the sacrifice, drove them away, and seized upon all that they had prepared for the festival. The Corinthian exiles who attended him, desired him to undertake the exhibition, as president; but not choosing that, he ordered them to proceed with the solemnity, and stayed to guard them. But when he was gone, the Argives celebrated the games over again; and some who had gained the prize before, had the same good fortune a second time; others who were victorious then, were now in the list of the vanquished. Lyfander took the opportunity to remark how great the cowardice of the Argives must be, who, while they reckoned the presidency at those games so honourable a privilege, did not dare to risk a battle for it. He was, indeed, of opinion, that a moderate regard for this sort of diversions was best, and applied himself to embellish the choirs and public exercises of his own country. When he was at Sparta, he honoured them with his presence, and supported them with great zeal and spirit, never missing any of the exercises of the young men or the virgins. As for other entertainments, so much admired by the world, he seemed not even to know them.

One day Callipedes, who had acquired great reputation among the Greeks as a tragedian, and was universally caressed, approached and paid his respects to

* There were two expeditions of Agefilaus against Corinth; Plutarch in this place confounds them; whereas Xenophon, in his fourth book, has distinguished them very clearly. The enterprize in which Teleutias assisted, did not succeed; for Iphicrates, the Athenian general, kept Corinth and its territories from feeling the effects of Agefilaus's resentment.

him;

him ; after which he mixed with a pompous air in his train, expecting he would take some honourable notice of him. At last he said, " Do not you know me, sir?" The king casting his eyes upon him, answered slightly, " Are you not Callipedes the stage-player?" Another time, being asked to go and hear a man who mimicked the nightingale to great perfection, he refused, and said, " I have heard the nightingale herself."

Menecrates the physician having succeeded in some desperate cases, got the surname of Jupiter. And he was so vain of the appellation, that he made use of it in a letter to the king. " Menecrates Jupiter to king " Agefilaus, health." His answer began thus : " King " Agefilaus to Menecrates, his senses."

While he was in the territories of Corinth, he took the temple of Juno ; and as he stood looking upon the soldiers who were carrying off the prisoners and the spoils, ambassadors came from Thebes with proposals of peace. He had ever hated that city ; and now thinking it necessary to express his contempt for it, he pretended not to see the ambassadors, nor to hear their address though they were before him. Heaven, however, avenged the affront. Before they were gone, news was brought him, that a battalion of Spartans was cut in pieces by Iphicrates. This was one of the greatest losses his country had sustained for a long time : and, besides being deprived of a number of brave men, there was this further mortification, that their heavy-armed soldiers were beaten by the light-armed, and Lacedæmonians by mercenaries.

Agefilaus immediately marched to their assistance ; but finding it too late, he returned to the temple of Juno, and acquainted the Bœotian ambassadors that he was ready to give them audience. Glad of the opportunity to return the insult, they came, but made no mention of the peace. They only desired a safe conduct to Corinth. Agefilaus, provoked at the demand, answered, " If you are desirous to see your " friends in the elevation of success, to-morrow you " shall

“ shall do it with all the security you can desire.” Accordingly, the next day he laid waste the territories of Corinth, and taking them with him, advanced to the very walls. Thus having shewn the ambassadors, that the Corinthians did not dare to oppose him, he dismissed them : then he collected such of his countrymen as had escaped in the late action, and marched to Lacedæmon ; taking care every day to move before it was light, and to encamp after it was dark, to prevent the insults of the Arcadians, to whose aversion and envy he was no stranger.

After this, to gratify the Achæans *, he led his forces, along with theirs, into Acarnania, where he made an immense booty, and defeated the Acarnanians in a pitched battle. The Achæans desired him to stay till winter, in order to prevent the enemy from sowing their lands. But he said, “ The step he should take, would be the very reverse ; for they would be more afraid of war, when they had their fields covered with corn.” The event justified his opinion. Next year, as soon as an army appeared upon their borders, they made peace with the Achæans.

When Conon and Pharnabazus, with the Persian fleet, had made themselves masters of the sea, they ravaged the coasts of Læconia ; and the walls of Athens were rebuilt with the money which Pharnabazus supplied. The Lacedæmonians then thought proper to conclude a peace with the Persians, and sent Antalcidas to make their proposals to Tiribazus. Antalcidas, on this occasion, acted an infamous part to the Greeks in Asia : and delivered up those cities to the king of Persia, for whose liberty Agesilaus had fought. No part of the dishonour, indeed, fell upon Agesilaus.

* The Achæans were in possession of Calydon, which before had belonged to the Ætolians. The Acarnanians, now assisted by the Athenians and Bœotians, attempted to make themselves masters of it. But the Achæans applied to the Lacedæmonians for succours, who employed Agesilaus in that business.

Antalcidas was his enemy, and he hastened the peace by all the means he could devise, because he knew the war contributed to the reputation and power of the man he hated. Nevertheless, when Agesilaus was told, "the Lacedæmonians were turning Medes," he said, "No; the Medes are turning Lacedæmonians." And as some of the Greeks were unwilling to be comprehended in the treaty, he forced them to accept the king's terms, by threatening them with war*.

His view in this was, to weaken the Thebans; for it was one of the conditions, that the cities of Bœotia should be free and independent. The subsequent events made the matter very clear. When Phœbidas in the most unjustifiable manner had seized the citadel of Cadmea in time of full peace, the Greeks in general expressed their indignation; and many of the Spartans did the same; particularly those who were at variance with Agesilaus. These asked him, in an angry tone, "By whose orders Phœbidas had done so unjust a thing?" hoping to bring the blame upon him. He scrupled not to say, in behalf of Phœbidas. "You should examine the tendency of the action; consider whether it is advantageous to Sparta. If its nature is such, it was glorious to do it without any orders." Yet in his discourse he was always magnifying justice, and giving her the first rank among the virtues. "Unsupported by justice," said he, "valour is good for nothing†; and if all men

* The king of Persia's terms were: That the Greek cities, in Asia, with the Islands of Clazomenæ and Cyprus, should remain to him: that all the other states, small and great, should be left free, excepting only Lemnos, Imbros, and Seyros, which, having been from time immemorable subject to the Athenians, should remain so; and that such as refused to embrace the peace, should be compelled to admit it by force of arms. XEN. *Hellen. Lib. v.*

This peace of Antalcidas was made in the year before Christ, 337.

† This is not the only instance, in which we find it was a maxim among the Lacedæmonians, that a man ought to be strictly just in his private capacity, but that he may take what latitude he pleases in a public one, provided his country is a gainer by it.

“ where

“ where just, there would be no need of valour.” If any one, in the course of conversation, happened to say, “ Such is the pleasure of the great king ;” he would answer, “ How is he greater than I, if he be “ not more just ? ” Which implies a maxim indisputably right, that justice is the royal instrument by which we are to take the different proportions of human excellence.

After the peace was concluded, the king of Persia sent him a letter, the purport of which was to propose a private friendship and the rights of hospitality between them ; but he declined it. He said, “ The “ public friendship was sufficient ; and while that “ lasted, there was no need of a private one.”

Yet he did not regulate his conduct by these honourable sentiments : on the contrary, he was often carried away by his ambition and resentment. Particularly in this affair of the Thebans, he not only screened Phœbidas from punishment, but persuaded the Spartan commonwealth to join in his crime, by holding the Cadmea for themselves, and putting the Theban administration in the hands of Archias and Leontidas, who had betrayed the citadel to Phœbidas. Hence it was natural to suspect that though Phœbidas was the instrument, the design was formed by Agesilaus ; and the subsequent proceedings confirmed it beyond contradiction. For when the Athenians had expelled the garrison *, and restored the Thebans to their liberty, he declared war against the latter for putting to death Archias and Leontidas, whom he called *polemarchs*, but who in fact were tyrants. Cleombrotus †, who upon the death of Agesipolis succeeded to the throne, was sent with an army into Bœotia. For Agesilaus, who was now forty years above the age

* See XEN. Grec. Hist. L. v. whence it appears that the Cadmea was recovered by the Athenian forces.

† Cleombrotus was the youngest son of Pausanias, and brother to Agesipolis.

of puberty, and consequently excused from service by law, was very willing to decline this commission. Indeed, as he had lately made war upon the Phliasiens in favour of exiles, he was ashamed now to appear in arms against the Thebans for tyrants.

There was then a Lacedæmonian named Sphodrias, of the party that opposed Agesilaus, lately appointed governor of Thespiæ. He wanted neither courage nor ambition, but he was governed rather by sanguine hopes than good sense and prudence. This man, fond of a great name, and reflecting how Phœbidas had distinguished himself in the lists of fame by his Theban enterprise, was persuaded it would be a much greater and more glorious performance, if without any directions from his superiors he could seize upon the Piræus, and deprive the Athenians of the empire of the sea, by a sudden attack at land.

It is said, that this was a trap laid for him by Pelopidas and Gelon, first magistrates in Bœotia*. They sent persons to him, who pretended to be much in the Spartan interest, and who, by magnifying him as the only man fit for such an exploit, worked up his ambition till he undertook a thing equally unjust and detestable with the affair of the Cadmea, but conducted with less valour, and attended with less success. He hoped to have reached the Piræus in the night, but day-light overtook him upon the plains of Thriasia. And we are told, that some light appearing to the soldiers to stream from the temples of Eleusis, they were struck with a religious horror. Sphodrias himself lost his spirit of adventure, when he found his march could no longer be concealed; and having collected some trifling booty, he returned with disgrace to Thespiæ.

Hereupon, the Athenians sent deputies to Sparta, to complain of Sphodrias; but they found the magis-

* They feared the Lacedæmonians were too strong for them, and therefore put Sphodrias upon this act of hostility against the Athenians, in order to draw them into the quarrel.

trates had proceeded against him without their complaints, and that he was already under a capital prosecution. He had not dared to appear and take his trial; for he dreaded the rage of his countrymen, who were ashamed of his conduct to the Athenians, and who were willing to resent the injury as done to themselves, rather than have it thought that they had joined in so flagrant an act of injustice.

Sphodrias had a son named Cleonymus, young and handsome, and a particular favourite of Archidamus, the son of Agefilaus. Archidamus, as it is natural to suppose, shared in all the uneasiness of the young man for his father; but he knew not how to appear openly in his behalf, because Sphodrias had been a strong adversary to Agefilaus. However, as Cleonymus applied to him, and intreated him with many tears to intercede with Agefilaus, as the person whom they had most reason to dread, he undertook the commission. Three or four days passed, during which he was restrained by a reverential awe from speaking of the matter to his father; but he followed him up and down in silence. At last, when the day of trial was at hand, he summoned up courage enough to say, Cleonymus was a suppliant to him for his father. Agefilaus, knowing the attachment of his son to that youth, did not lay any injunctions upon him against it. For Cleonymus, from his infancy, had given hopes that he would one day rank with the worthiest men in Sparta. Yet he did not give him room to expect any great favour in this case: he only said, "He would consider what would be the consistent and honourable part for him to act."

Archidamus, therefore, ashamed of his inefficacy of his interposition, discontinued his visits to Cleonymus, though before he used to call upon him many times in a day. Hence the friends of Sphodrias gave up the point for lost, till an intimate acquaintance of Agefilaus, named Etymocles, in a conversation which passed between them, discovered the sentiments of that
 prince

prince. He told him, " He highly disapproved that attempt of Sphodrias, yet he looked upon him as a brave man, and was sensible that Sparta had occasion for such soldiers as he." This was the way, indeed, in which Agesilaus constantly spoke of the cause, in order to oblige his son. By this Cleonymus immediately perceived, with how much zeal Archidamus had served him; and the friends of Sphodrias appeared with more courage in his behalf. Agesilaus was certainly a most affectionate father. It is said, when his children were small, he would join in their sports; and a friend happening to find him one day riding among them upon a stick, he desired him " not to mention it, till he was a father himself."

Sphodrias was acquitted; upon which the Athenians prepared for war. This drew the censures of the world upon Agesilaus, who, to gratify an absurd and childish inclination of his son, obstructed the course of justice, and brought his country under the reproach of such flagrant offences against the Greeks. As he found his colleague Cleombrotus * disinclined to continue the war with the Thebans, he dropt the excuse the law furnished him with, though he had made use of it before, and marched himself into Bœotia. The Thebans suffered much from his operations, and he felt the same from theirs in his turn. So that Antalcidas one day seeing him come off wounded, thus addressed him, " The Thebans pay you well for teaching them to fight, when they had neither inclination nor sufficient skill for it." It is certain the Thebans were at this time much more formidable in the field than they had ever been; after having been trained and exercised in so many wars with the Lacedæmonians. For the same reason their ancient sage, Lycurgus, in one of his three ordinances called *Rhetra*, forbade

* Xenophon says, the *Ephori* thought Agesilaus, as a more experienced general, would conduct the war better than Cleombrotus. *Top. viii.* has nothing to do in the text.

them to go to war with the same enemy often; namely, to prevent the enemy from learning their art.

The allies of Sparta likewise complained of Agefilaus, "That it was not in any public quarrel, but from an obstinate spirit of private resentment *, that he fought to destroy the Thebans. For their part," they said, "they were wearing themselves out, without any occasion, by going in such numbers upon this or that expedition every year, at the will of a handful of Lacedæmonians." Hereupon, Agefilaus, desirous to shew them that the number of their warriors was not so great, ordered all the allies to sit down promiscuously on one side, and all the Lacedæmonians on the other. This done, the crier summoned the trades to stand up one after another; the potters first, and then the braziers, the carpenters, the masons, in short, all the mechanics. Almost all the allies rose up to answer in one branch of business or other, but not one of the Lacedæmonians; for they were forbidden to learn or exercise any manual art. Then Agefilaus smiled and said, "You see, my friends, we send more warriors into the field than you."

When he was come as far as Megara, upon his return from Thebes, as he was going up to the senate-house in the citadel †, he was seized with spasms, and an acute pain in his right leg. It swelled immediately, the vessels were distended with blood, and there appeared all the signs of a violent inflammation. A Syracusan physician opened a vein below the ankle; upon which the pain abated; but the blood came so fast, that it was not stopt without great difficulty, nor till he fainted away and his life was in danger. He

* This private resentment and enmity which Agefilaus entertained against the Thebans, went near to bring ruin both upon himself and his country.

† Xenophon (Hellan. 337. 12. Ed. St.) says, it was as he was going from the temple of Venus to the senate-house.

was carried to Lacedæmon in a weak condition, and continued a long time incapable of service.

In the mean time the Spartans met with several checks both by sea and land. The most considerable loss was at Leuctra*, which was the first pitched battle the Thebans gained against them. Before the last-mentioned action, all parties were disposed to peace, and the states of Greece sent their deputies to Lacedæmon to treat of it. Among these was Epaminondas, who was celebrated for his erudition and philosophy, but had as yet given no proofs of his capacity for commanding armies. He saw the other deputies were awed by the presence of Agesilaus, and he was the only one who preserved a proper dignity and freedom both in his manner and his propositions. He made a speech in favour, not only of the Thebans, but of Greece in general; in which he shewed that war tended to aggrandise Sparta, at the expence of the other states; and insisted that the peace should be founded upon justice and equality; because then only it would be lasting, when all were put upon an equal footing.

Agesilaus perceiving that the Greeks listened to him with wonder and great attention, asked him, "Whether he thought it just and equitable that the cities of Bœotia should be declared free and independent?" Epaminondas, with great readiness and spirit, answered him with another question, "Do you think it reasonable that all the cities of Laconia should be declared independent?" Agesilaus, incensed at this answer, started up, and insisted upon his declaring peremptorily, "Whether he agreed to a perfect independence of Bœotia?" and Epaminondas replied as before, "On condition you put Laconia in the same

* Some manuscripts have it *Tegyra*; but here is no necessity to alter the received reading; though Palmer insists so much upon it. For that of Leuctra was certainly the first pitched battle in which the Thebans defeated the Spartans; and they effected it at the first career. Besides, it appears from Xenophon (*Hellan.* 349, 25.) that Agesilaus was not then recovered of the sickness mentioned in the text.

“state.” Agefilas, now exasperated to the last degree, and glad of a pretence against the Thebans, struck their name out of the treaty, and declared war against them upon the spot. After the rest of the deputies had signed such points as they could settle amicably, he dismissed them; leaving others of a more difficult nature to be decided by the sword.

As Cleombrotus had then an army in Phocis, the *Ephori* sent him orders to march against the Thebans. At the same time they sent their commissaries to assemble the allies, who were ill inclined to the war, and considered it as a great burthen upon them, though they durst not contradict or oppose the Lacedæmonians. Many inauspicious signs and prodigies appeared, as we have observed in the life of Epaminondas; and Protheus* the Spartan opposed the war to the utmost of his power. But Agefilas could not be driven from his purpose. He prevailed to have hostilities commenced; in hopes, that while the rest of Greece was in a state of freedom, and in alliance with Sparta, and the Thebans only excepted, he should have an excellent opportunity to chastise them. That the war was undertaken to gratify his resentment, rather than upon rational motives, appears from hence: the treaty was concluded at Lacedæmon on the fourteenth of *June*, and the Lacedæmonians were defeated at *Leuctra*, on the fifth of *July*; which was only twenty days after. A thousand citizens of Lacedæmon were killed there, among whom were their king Cleombrotus and the flower of their army, who fell by his side. The beautiful Cleonymus, the son of Sphodrias, was

* Protheus proposed that the Spartans should disband their army according to their engagement; that all the states should carry their contributions to the temple of Apollo, to be employed only in making war upon such as should oppose the liberty of the cities. This, he said, would give the cause the sanction of Heaven, and the states of Greece would at all times be ready to embark in it. But the Spartans only laughed at this advice; for, as Xenophon adds, “It looked as if the Gods were already urging on the Lacedæmonians to their ruin.”

of the number: he was struck down three several times, as he was fighting in defence of his prince, and rose up as often; and at last was killed with his sword in his hand*.

After the Lacedæmonians had received this unexpected blow, and the Thebans were crowned with more glorious success than Greeks had ever boasted in a battle with Greeks, the spirit and dignity of the vanquished was, notwithstanding, more to be admired and applauded than that of the conquerors. And indeed, if, as Xenophon says, "Men of merit, in their convivial conversations let fall some expressions that deserve to be remarked and preserved; certainly the noble behaviour and the expressions of such persons, when struggling with adversity, claim our notice much more." When the Spartans received the news of the overthrow at Leuctra, it happened that they were celebrating a festival, and the city was full of strangers; for the troops of young men and maidens were at their exercises in the theatre. The *Ephori*, though they immediately perceived that their affairs were ruined, and that they had lost the empire of Greece, would not suffer the sports to break off, nor any of the ceremonies or decorations of the festival to be omitted; but having sent

* Epaminondas placed his best troops in one wing, and those he least depended on in the other. The former he commanded in person; to the latter he gave directions, that, when they found the enemy's charge too heavy, they should retire leisurely, so as to expose them to a sloping front. Cleombrotus and Archidamus advanced to the charge with great vigour; but as they pressed on the Theban wing which retired, they gave Epaminondas an opportunity of charging them both in flank and front; which he did with so much bravery, that the Spartans began to give way, especially after Cleombrotus was slain, whose dead body, however, they recovered. At length they were totally defeated, chiefly by the skill and conduct of the Theban general. Four thousand Spartans were killed on the field of battle; whereas the Thebans did not lose above three hundred. Such was the fatal battle of Leuctra, wherein the Spartans lost their superiority in Greece, which they had held near five hundred years.

the names of the killed to their respective families, they stayed to see the exercises, the dances, and all other parts of the exhibition concluded*.

Next morning, the names of the killed, and of those who survived the battle, being perfectly ascertained, the fathers and other relations of the dead, appeared in public, and embraced each other with a cheerful air and generous pride; while the relations of the survivors shut themselves up, as in time of mourning. And if any one was forced to go out upon business, he shewed all the tokens of sorrow and humiliation both in his speech and countenance. The difference was still more remarkable among the matrons. They who expected to receive their sons alive from the battle, were melancholy and silent; whereas those who had an account that their sons were slain, repaired immediately to the temples to return thanks, and visited each other with all the marks of joy and elevation.

The people, who were now deserted by their allies, and expected that Epaminondas, in the pride of victory, would enter Peloponnesus, called to mind the oracle, which they applied again to the lameness of Agesilaus. The scruples they had on this occasion, discouraged them extremely, and they were afraid the divine displeasure had brought upon them the late calamity, for expelling a sound man from the throne, and preferring a lame one, in spite of the extraordinary warnings Heaven had given them against it. Nevertheless, in regard of his virtue, his authority, and renown, they looked upon him as the only man who could retrieve their affairs; for, beside marching under

* But where was the merit of all this? What could such a conduct have for its support but either insensibility or affectation? If they found any reason to rejoice in the glorious deaths of their friends and fellow-citizens, certainly the ruin of the state was an object sufficiently serious to call them from the pursuits of festivity! But, *Quæ Juppiter vult perdere prius dementat*: The infatuation of ambition and jealousy drew upon them the Theban war, and it seemed to last upon them, even when they had felt its fatal consequences.

his banners as their prince and general, they applied to him in every internal disorder of the commonwealth. At present they were at a loss what to do with those who had fled from the battle. The Lacedæmonians call such persons *tresantus* *. In this case they did not choose to set such marks of disgrace upon them as the laws directed, because they were so numerous and powerful, that there was reason to apprehend it might occasion an insurrection. For such persons are not only excluded all offices, but it is infamous to intermarry with them. Any man that meets them is at liberty to strike them. They are obliged to appear in a forlorn manner, and in a vile habit, with patches of divers colours; and to wear their beards half shaved and half unshaved. To put so rigid a law as this in execution, at a time when the offenders were so numerous, and when the commonwealth had so much occasion for soldiers, was both impolitic and dangerous.

In this perplexity they had recourse to Agesilaus, and invested him with new powers of legislation. But he, without making any addition, retrenchment, or change, went into the assembly, and told the Lacedæmonians, "The laws should sleep that day, and resume their authority the day following, and retain it for ever." By this means he preserved to the state its laws entire, as well as the obnoxious persons from infamy. Then, in order to raise the youth out of the depression and melancholy under which they laboured, he entered Arcadia at the head of them. He avoided a battle, indeed, with great care, but he took a little town of the Mantineans, and ravaged the flat country. This restored Sparta to her spirits in some degree, and gave her reason to hope that she was not absolutely lost.

Soon after this, Epaminondas and his allies entered Laconia. His infantry amounted to forty thousand men, exclusive of the light-armed, and those who,

* That is, persons governed by their fears.

without arms, followed only for plunder. For, if the whole were reckoned, there were not fewer than seventy thousand that poured into that country. Full six hundred years were elapsed since the first establishment of the Dorians in Lacedæmon, and this was the first time, in all that long period, they had seen an enemy in their territories; none ever dared to set foot in them before. But now a new scene of hostilities appeared; the confederates advanced without resistance, laying all waste with fire and sword, as far as the Eurotas, and the very suburbs of Sparta. For, as Theopompus informs us, Agefilaus would not suffer the Lacedæmonians to engage with such an impetuous torrent of war. He contented himself with placing his best infantry in the middle of the city, and other important posts; and bore the menaces and insults of the Thebans, who called him out by name, as the firebrand which had lighted up the war, and bade him fight for his country, upon which he had brought so many misfortunes.

Agefilaus was equally disturbed at the tumult and disorder within the city, the outcries of the old men, who moved backwards and forwards, expressing their grief and indignation, and the wild behaviour of the women, who were terrified even to madness at the shouts of the enemy, and the flames which ascended around them. He was in pain, too, for his reputation. Sparta was a great and powerful state at his accession, and he now saw her glory wither, and his own boasts come to nothing. It seems, he had often said, "No Spartan women ever saw the smoke of an enemy's camp." In like manner, when an Athenian disputed with Antalcidas on the subject of valour, and said, "We have often driven you from the banks of the Cephissus," Antalcidas answered, "But we never drove you from the banks of the Eurotas." Near akin to this, was the repartee of a Spartan of less note, to a man of Argos, who said, "Many of
" you

“ you sleep on the plains of Argos.” The Spartan answered, “ But not one of you sleeps on the plains of Lacedæmon.”

Some say, Antalcidas was then one of the *Ephori*, and that he conveyed his children to Cythera, in fear that Sparta would be taken. As the enemy prepared to pass the Eurotas, in order to attack the town itself, Agesilaus relinquished the other posts, and drew up all his forces on an eminence in the middle of the city. It happened that the river was much swollen with the snow which had fallen in great quantities, and the cold was more troublesome to the Thebans than the rapidity of the current; yet Epaminondas forded it at the head of his infantry. As he was passing it, somebody pointed him out to Agesilaus; who, after having viewed him for some time, only let fall this expression, “ O adventurous man!” All the ambition of Epaminondas was to come to an engagement in the city, and to erect a trophy there; but finding he could not draw down Agesilaus from the heights, he decamped, and laid waste the country.

There had long been a disaffected party in Lacedæmon; and now about two hundred of that party leagued together, and seized upon a strong post, called the *Ifforium*, in which stood the temple of Diana. The Lacedæmonians wanted to have the place stormed immediately: but Agesilaus, apprehensive of an insurrection in their favour, took his cloak and one servant with him, and told them aloud, “ That they had mistaken their orders. I did not order you,” said he, “ to take post here, nor all in any one place, but some there” (pointing to another place), “ and some in other quarters.” When they heard this, they were happy in thinking their design was not discovered; and they came out, and went to several posts as he directed them. At the same time he lodged another corps in the *Ifforium*, and took about fifteen of the mutineers, and put them to death in the night.

Soon

Soon after this, he discovered another, and much greater conspiracy of Spartans, who met privately in a house belonging to one of them, to consider of means to change the form of government. It was dangerous either to bring them to a trial in a time of so much trouble, or to let their cabals pass without notice. Agefilaus, therefore, having consulted with the *Ephori*, put them to death without the formality of a trial, though no Spartan had ever suffered in that manner before.

As many of the neighbouring burghers and of the *Helots* who were enlisted, flunk away from the town, and deserted to the enemy, and this greatly discouraged his forces, he ordered his servants to go early in the morning to the quarters, and where they found any had deserted, to hide their arms, that their numbers might not be known.

Historians do not agree as to the time when the Thebans quitted Laconia. Some say the winter soon forced them to retire; the Arcadians being impatient of a campaign at that season, and falling off in a very disorderly manner: others affirm, that the Thebans stayed full three months, in which time they laid waste almost all the country. Theopompus writes, that at the very juncture the governors of Bœotia had sent them orders to return, there came a Spartan, named Phrixus, on the part of Agefilaus, and gave them ten talents to leave Laconia. So that, according to him, they not only executed all that they intended, but had money from the enemy to defray the expences of their return. For my part, I cannot conceive how Theopompus came to be acquainted with this particular, which other historians knew nothing of.

It is universally agreed, however, that Agefilaus saved Sparta, by controuling his native passions of obstinacy and ambition, and pursuing no measures but what were safe. He could not, indeed, after the late blow, restore her to her former glory and power.

As

As healthy bodies, long accustomed to a strict and regular diet, often find one deviation from that regimen fatal, so one miscarriage brought that flourishing state to decay. Nor is it to be wondered at. Their constitution was admirably formed for peace, for virtue, and harmony : but when they wanted to add to their dominions by force of arms, and to make acquisitions which Lycurgus thought unnecessary to their happiness, they split upon that rock he had warned them to avoid.

Agefilauſus now declined the ſervice on account of his great age. But his ſon Archidamus, having received ſome ſuccours from Dionyſius the Sicilian tyrant, fought the Arcadians, and gained that which is called *the tearleſs battle* ; for he killed great numbers of the enemy, without loſing a man himſelf.

Nothing could afford a greater proof of the weakneſs of Sparta, than this victory. Before, it had been ſo common, and ſo natural a thing, for Spartans to conquer, that on ſuch occaſions they offered no greater ſacrifice than a cock ; the combatants were not elated, nor thoſe who received the tidings of victory overjoyed. Even when that great battle was fought at Mantinea, which Thucydides has ſo well deſcribed, the *Ephori* preſented the perſon who brought them the firſt news of their ſucceſs, with nothing but a meſs of meat from the public table. But now, when an account of this battle was brought, and Archidamus approached the town, they were not able to contain themſelves. Firſt his father advanced to meet him with tears of joy, and after him the magiſtrates. Multitudes of old men and women flocked to the river, ſtretching out their hands, and bleſſing the gods, as if Sparta had waſhed off her late unworthy ſtains, and ſeen her glory ſtream out aſreſh. Till that hour the men were ſo much aſhamed of the loſs they had ſuſtained, that, it is ſaid, they could not even carry it with an unembarrasſed countenance to the women.

When

When Epaminondas re-established Messene, and the ancient inhabitants returned to it from all quarters, the Spartans had not courage to oppose him in the field. But it gave them great concern, and they could not look upon Agefilaus without anger, when they considered that in his reign they had lost a country full as extensive as Laconia, and superior in fertility to all the provinces of Greece; a country whose revenues they had long called their own. For this reason, Agefilaus rejected the peace, which the Thebans offered him; not choosing formally to give up to them what they were in fact possessed of. But while he was contending for what he could not recover, he was near losing Sparta itself, through the superior generalship of his adversary. The Mantineans had separated again from their alliance with Thebes, and called in the Lacedæmonians to their assistance. Epaminondas being apprised that Agefilaus was upon his march to Mantinea, decamped from Tegea in the night, unknown to the Mantineans, and took a different road to Lacedæmon, from that Agefilaus was upon; so that nothing was more likely than that he would have come upon the city in this defenceless state, and have taken it with ease. But Euthynus, of Thebes, as Callisthenes relates it, or some Cretan, according to Xenophon, informed Agefilaus of the design, who sent a horseman to alarm the city, and not long after entered it himself.

In a little time the Thebans passed the Eurotas, and attacked the town. Agefilaus defended it with a vigour above his years. He saw that this was not the time (as it had been) for safe and cautious measures, but rather for the boldest and most desperate efforts; inasmuch that the means in which he had never before placed any confidence, or made the least use of, staved off the present danger, and snatched the town out of the hands of Epaminondas. He erected a trophy upon the occasion, and shewed the children and the women how gloriously the Spartans rewarded their
country

country for their education. Archidamus greatly distinguished himself that day, both by his courage and agility, flying through the bye-lanes to meet the enemy where they pressed the hardest, and everywhere repulsing them with his little band.

But Ifadus the son of Phœbidas, was the most extraordinary and striking spectacle, not only to his countrymen, but to the enemy. He was tall and beautiful in his person, and just growing from a boy into a man, which is the time the human flower has the greatest charm. He was without either arms or clothes, naked and newly anointed with oil; only he had a spear in one hand, and a sword in the other. In this condition he rushed out of his house, and having made his way through the combatants, he dealt his deadly blows among the enemy's ranks, striking down every man he engaged with. Yet he received not one wound himself; whether it was that Heaven preserved him in regard to his valour, or whether he appeared to his adversaries as something more than human. It is said, the *Ephori* honoured him with a chaplet for the great things he had performed, but, at the same time, fined him a thousand drachmas for daring to appear without his armour.

Some days after this, there was another battle before Mantinea. Epaminondas, after having routed the first battalions, was very eager in the pursuit; when a Spartan, named Anticrates, turned short, and gave him a wound, with a spear, according to Diofcorides, or, as others say, with a sword. And, indeed, the descendants of Anticrates* are to this day called *Macheriones*, *svordsmen*, in Lacedæmon. This action appeared so great, and was so acceptable to the Spartans, on account of their fear of Epaminondas, that they decreed great honours and rewards to

* Diodorus Siculus attributes this action to Grillus, the son of Xenophon, who, he says, was killed immediately after. But Plutarch's account seems better grounded.

Anticrates,

Anticrates, and an exemption from taxes to his posterity; one of which, named Callicrates*, now enjoys that privilege.

After this battle, and the death of Epaminondas, the Greeks concluded a peace. But Agesilaus, under pretence that the Messenians were not a state, insisted that they should not be comprehended in the treaty. All the rest, however, admitted them to take the oath, as one of the states; and the Lacedæmonians withdrew, intending to continue the war, in hopes of recovering Messenia. Agesilaus could not, therefore, be considered but as violent and obstinate in his temper, and insatiably fond of hostilities, since he took every method to obstruct the general peace, and to protract the war; though at the same time, through want of money, he was forced to borrow of his friends, and to demand unreasonable subsidies of the people. This was at a time, too, when he had the fairest opportunity to extricate himself from all his distresses. Besides, after he had let slip the power, which never before was at such a height, lost so many cities, and seen his country deprived of the superiority both at sea and land, should he have wrangled about the property and the revenues of Messene?

He lost still more reputation, by taking a command under Tachos, the Ægyptian chief. It was not thought suitable to one of the greatest characters in Greece, a man who had filled the whole world with his renown, to hire out his person, to give his name and his interest for a pecuniary consideration, and to act as captain of a band of mercenaries, for a barbarian, a rebel against the king his master. Had he, now he was upwards of eighty, and his body full of wounds and scars, accepted again of the appointment of captain-general, to fight for the liberties of Greece, his ambition, at that time of day, would not have been entirely unexceptionable. For even honourable pursuits must have their times and seasons to give them

* Near five hundred years after.

a propriety; or rather, propriety, and the avoiding of all extremes, is the characteristic which distinguishes honourable pursuits from the dishonourable. But Agesilaus was not moved by this consideration, nor did he think any public service unworthy of him; he thought it much more unbecoming to lead an inactive life at home, and to sit down and wait till death should strike his blow. He therefore raised a body of mercenaries, and fitted out a fleet, with the money which Tachos had sent him, and then set sail: taking with him thirty Spartans for his counsellors, as formerly.

Upon his arrival in Ægypt, all the greater officers of the kingdom came immediately to pay their court to him. Indeed, the name and character of Agesilaus had raised great expectations in the Ægyptians in general, and they crowded to the shore to get a sight of him. But when they beheld no pomp or grandeur of appearance, and saw only a little old man, and in as mean attire, seated on the grass by the sea-side, they could not help regarding the thing in a ridiculous light, and observing, that this was the very thing represented in the fable*, “The mountain had brought forth a mouse.” They were still more surpris’d at his want of politeness, when they brought him such presents as were commonly made to strangers of distinction, and he took only the flour, the veal, and the geese, and refused the pasties, the sweet-meats, and perfumes; and when they pressed him to accept them, he said, “They might carry them to the *helots*.” Theophrastus tells us, he was pleas’d with the *papyrus* on account of its thin and pliant texture, which made it very proper for chaplets; and, when he left Ægypt, he asked the king for some of it.

Tachos was preparing for the war; and Agesilaus, upon joining him, was greatly disappointed to find he had not the command of all the forces given him, but

* Athenæus makes Tachos say this, and Agesilaus answer, “You will find me a lion by and by.”

only

only that of the mercenaries. Chabrias, the Athenian, was admiral: Tachos, however, reserved to himself the chief direction, both at sea and land. This was the first disagreeable circumstance that occurred to Agefilaus; and others soon followed. The vanity and insolence of the Ægyptian gave him great pain, but he was forced to bear them. He consented to sail with him against the Phœnicians, and, contrary to his dignity and nature, submitted to the barbarian, till he could find an opportunity to shake off his yoke. That opportunity soon presented itself. Nectanabis*, cousin to Tachos, who commanded part of the forces, revolted, and was proclaimed king by the Ægyptians.

In consequence of this, Nectanabis sent ambassadors to Agefilaus, to entreat his assistance. He made the same application to Chabrias, and promised them both great rewards. Tachos was apprised of these proceedings, and begged of them not to abandon him. Chabrias listened to his request, and endeavoured also to appease the resentment of Agefilaus, and keep him to the cause he had embarked in. Agefilaus answered, "As for you, Chabrias, you came hither as a volunteer, and, therefore, may act as you think proper; but I was sent by my country, upon the application of the Ægyptians, for a general. It would not then be right to commence hostilities against the people to whom I was sent as an assistant, except Sparta should give me such orders." At the same time he sent some of his officers home, with instructions to accuse Tachos, and to defend the cause of Nectanabis. The two rival kings also applied to the Lacedæmonians; the one as an ancient friend and ally, and the other as one who had a greater regard for Sparta, and would give her more valuable proofs of his attachment.

The Lacedæmonians gave the Ægyptian deputies the hearing, and this public answer, "That they

* *Ανεψιος* signifies either *cousin* or *nephew*. But according to Diodorus, Nectanabis was the son of Tachos.

" should

“ should leave the business to the care of Agesilaus.” But their private instructions to him were, “ to do what should appear most advantageous to Sparta.” Agesilaus had no sooner received this order, than he withdrew with his mercenaries, and went over to Nectanabis; covering this strange and scandalous proceeding* with the pretence of acting in the best manner for his country: when that flight veil is taken off, its right name is treachery, and base desertion. It is true, the Lacedæmonians, by placing a regard to the advantage of their country, in the first rank of honour and virtue, left themselves no criterion of justice, but the aggrandisement of Sparta.

Tachos, thus abandoned by the mercenaries, took to flight. But, at the same time, there rose up in Mendes another competitor, to dispute the crown with Nectanabis; and that competitor advanced with a hundred thousand men, whom he had soon assembled. Nectanabis, to encourage Agesilaus, represented to him, that though the numbers of the enemy were great, they were only a mixed multitude, and many of them mechanics, who were to be despised for their utter ignorance of war. “ It is not their numbers,” said Agesilaus, “ that I fear, but that ignorance and inexperience you mention, which renders them incapable of being practised upon by art or stratagem: for those can only be exercised with success, upon such as, having skill enough to suspect the designs of their enemy, form schemes to counter-mine him, and, in the mean time, are caught by new contrivances. But he who has neither expect-

* Xenophon has succeeded well enough in defending Agesilaus with respect to his undertaking the expedition into Ægypt. He represents him pleased with the hopes of making Tachos some return for his many services to the Lacedæmonians; of restoring, through his means, the Greek cities in Asia to their liberty, and of revenging the ill offices done the Spartans by the King of Persia. But it was in vain for that historian to attempt to exculpate him, with respect to his deserting Tachos, which Plutarch justly treats as an act of treachery.

“ tation nor suspicion of that sort, gives his adversary
 “ no more opportunity, than he who stands still gives
 “ to a wrestler.”

Soon after, the adventurer of Mendes sent persons to found Agefilaus. This alarmed Nectanabis; and when Agefilaus advised him to give battle immediately, and not to protract the war with men who had seen no service, but who, by the advantage of numbers, might draw a line of circumvallation about his trenches, and prevent him in most of his operations; then his fears and suspicions increased, and put him upon the expedient of retiring into a large and well-fortified town. Agefilaus could not well digest this instance of distrust; yet he was ashamed to change sides again, and at last return without effecting any thing. He therefore followed his standard, and entered the town with him.

However, when the enemy came up, and began to open their trenches, in order to enclose him, the Ægyptian, afraid of a siege, was inclined to come immediately to an engagement; and the Greeks were of his opinion, because there was no great quantity of provisions in the place. But Agefilaus opposed it; and the Ægyptians, on that account, looked upon him in a worse light than before, not scrupling to call him a traitor to their king. These censures he now bore with patience, because he was waiting a favourable moment for putting in execution a design he had formed.

The design was this. The enemy, as we have observed, were drawing a deep trench round the walls, with an intent to shut up Nectanabis. When they had proceeded so far in the work, that the two ends were almost ready to meet, as soon as night came on, Agefilaus ordered the Greeks to arm, and then went to the Ægyptian, and said, “ Now is the time, young
 “ man, for you to save yourself, which I did not choose
 “ to speak of sooner, lest it should be divulged and
 “ lost. The enemy with their own hands have
 “ worked

“ worked out your security, by labouring so long up-
 “ on the trench, that the part which is finished will
 “ prevent our suffering by their numbers, and the
 “ space which is left puts it in our power to fight them
 “ upon equal terms. Come on then ; now shew your
 “ courage ; sally out along with us, with the utmost
 “ vigour, and save both yourself and your army.
 “ The enemy will not dare to stand us in front, and
 “ our flanks are secured by the trench.” Nectanabis
 now admiring his capacity, put himself in the middle
 of the Greeks and advancing to the charge, easily
 routed all that opposed him.

Agesilaus having thus gained the prince's confi-
 dence, availed himself once more of the same strata-
 gem, as a wrestler sometimes uses the same slight
 twice in one day. By sometimes pretending to fly,
 and sometimes facing about, he drew the enemy's
 whole army into a narrow place, enclosed with two
 ditches that were very deep and full of water. When
 he saw them thus entangled, he advanced to the charge,
 with a front equal to theirs, and secured by the nature
 of the ground against being surrounded. The conse-
 quence was, that they made but little resistance ; num-
 bers were killed, and the rest fled, and were entirely
 put to the rout.

The Ægyptian, thus successful in his affairs, and
 firmly established in this kingdom, had a grateful
 sense of the services of Agesilaus, and pressed him to
 spend the winter with him. But he hastened his re-
 turn to Sparta, on account of the war she had upon
 her hands at home ; for he knew that her finances
 were low, though, at the same time, she found it ne-
 cessary to employ a body of mercenaries. Nectanabis
 dismissed him with great marks of honour, and, beside
 other presents, furnished him with two hundred and
 thirty talents of silver, for the expences of the Grecian
 war. But, as it was winter, he met with a storm which
 drove him upon a desert shore in Africa, called the
Javen of Menelaus ; and there he died, at the age of

eighty-four years ; of which he had reigned forty-one in Lacedæmon. Above thirty years of that time he made the greatest figure, both as to reputation and power, being looked upon as commander in chief, and, as it were, king of Greece, till the battle of Leuctra.

It was the custom of the Spartans to bury persons of ordinary rank in the place where they expired, when they happened to die in a foreign country, but to carry the corpses of their kings home. And as the attendants of Agefilaus had not honey to preserve the body, they embalmed it with melted wax, and so conveyed it to Lacedæmon. His son Archidamus succeeded to the crown, which descended in his family to Agis, the fifth from Agefilaus. This Agis, the third of that name, was assassinated by Leonidas, for attempting to restore the ancient discipline of Sparta.

POMPEY.

P O M P E Y.

THE people of Rome appear, from the first, to have been affected towards Pompey, much in the same manner as Prometheus, in Æschylus, was towards Hercules, when after that hero had delivered him from his chains, he says

The fire I hated, but the son I love*.

For never did the Romans entertain a stronger and more rancorous hatred for any general, than for Strabo the father of Pompey. While he lived, indeed, they were afraid of his abilities as a soldier, for he had great talents for war; but upon his death, which happened by a stroke of lightning, they dragged his corpse from the bier, on the way to the funeral pile, and treated it with the greatest indignity. On the other hand, no man ever experienced from the same Romans an attachment more early begun, more disinterested in all the stages of his prosperity, or more constant and faithful in the decline of his fortune, than Pompey.

The sole cause of their aversion to the father, was his insatiable avarice; but there were many causes of their affection for the son; his temperate way of living, his application to martial exercises, his eloquent

* Of the tragedy of *Prometheus Released*, from which this line is taken, we have only some fragments remaining. Jupiter had chained Prometheus to the rocks of Caucasus, and Hercules, the son of Jupiter, released him.

and persuasive address, his strict honour and fidelity, and the easiness of access to him upon all occasions; for no man was ever less importunate in asking favours*, or more gracious in conferring them. When he gave, it was without arrogance, and when he received, it was with dignity.

In his youth he had a very engaging countenance, which spoke for him before he opened his lips. Yet that grace of aspect was not unattended with dignity, and amidst his youthful bloom there was a venerable and princely air. His hair naturally curled a little before; which together with the shining moisture † and quick turn of his eye, produced a stronger likeness of Alexander the Great, than that which appeared in the statues of that prince. So that some seriously gave him the name of Alexander, and he did not refuse it; others applied it to him by way of ridicule. And Lucius Philippus ‡, a man of consular dignity, as he was one day pleading for him, said, “It was no wonder if Philip was a lover of Alexander.”

We are told, that Flora, the courtesan, took a pleasure in her old age, in speaking of the commerce she had with Pompey; and she used to say, she could never quit his embraces without giving him a bite. She added, that Geminius, one of Pompey’s acquaintance, had a passion for her, and gave her much trouble with his solicitations. At last she told him, she could

* Ὡς μηδὲν ἀλυπηρέως δεηθῆναι, μηδὲ ἴδιος ὑπεργρησάσθαι δομαίη.

The Latin translator has taken δεηθῆναι in a passive sense—*cum quidem nemo esset, qui vel æquiori animo peti abs se aliquid pateretur*. But that is inconsistent with the contrast which immediately follows.

One of the manuscripts has it Ὡς μηδὲν ἀλυπηρῶς—and Dacier appears to have followed it, *car il n’y avoit point d’homme plus vènétable que lui à demander des services*.

† Ὑγρότης signifies not only moisture, but flexibility. Lucian has ὑγρότης μάλων. And τῶν αἰσῶν τὰ οὐκ αἰσθητὰ εὐδαιμονίας ὑγρότης seems more applicable to the latter sense. However, we have given both.

‡ Lucius Martius Philippus, one of the greatest orators of his time. He was father-in-law to Augustus, having married his mother Attia. Horace speaks of him, *Lib. i. Ep. 7*.

not consent on account of Pompey. Upon which, he applied to Pompey for his permission, and he gave it him, but never approached her afterwards, though he seemed to retain a regard for her. She bore the loss of him, not with the slight uneasiness of a prostitute, but was long sick through sorrow and regret. It is said, that Flora was so celebrated for her beauty and fine bloom, that when Cæcilius Metellus adorned the temple of Castor and Pollux with statues and paintings, he gave her picture a place among them.

Demetrius, one of Pompey's freed-men, who had great interest with him, and who died worth four thousand talents, had a wife of irresistible beauty. Pompey, on that account, behaved to her with less politeness than was natural to him, that he might not appear to be caught by her charms. But though he took his measures with so much care and caution in this respect, he could not escape the censure of his enemies, who accused him of a commerce with married women, and said he often neglected, or gave up, points essential to the public, to gratify his mistresses.

As to the simplicity of his diet, there is a remarkable saying of his upon record. In a great illness, when his appetite was almost gone, the physician ordered him a thrush. His servants, upon enquiry, found there was not one to be had for money; for the season was past. They were informed, however, that Lucullus had them all the year in his menageries. This being reported to Pompey, he said, "Does Pompey's life depend upon the luxury of Lucullus?" Then, without any regard to the physician, he eat something that was easy to be had. But this happened at a later period of his life.

While he was very young, and served under his father, who was carrying on the war against Cinna*,

* In the year of Rome 666. And as Pompey was born the same year with Cicero, viz. in the year of Rome 647, he must, in this war with Cinna, have been nineteen years old.

one Lucius Terentius was his comrade, and they slept in the same tent. This Terentius, gained by Cinna's money, undertook to assassinate Pompey, while others set fire to the general's tent. Pompey got information of this when he was at supper, and it did not put him in the least confusion. He drank more freely, and caressed Terentius more than usual; but when they were to have gone to rest, he stole out of the tent, and went and planted a guard about his father. This done, he waited quietly for the event. Terentius, as soon as he thought Pompey was asleep, drew his sword, and stabbed the coverlets of the bed in many places, imagining that he was in it.

Immediately after this, there was a great mutiny in the camp. The soldiers, who hated their general, were determined to go over to the enemy, and began to strike their tents and take up their arms. The general dreading the tumult, did not dare to make his appearance. But Pompey was every-where; he begged of them with tears to stay, and at last threw himself upon his face in the gate-way. There he lay weeping, and bidding them, if they would go out, tread upon him. Upon this, they were ashamed to proceed, and all, except eight hundred, returned and reconciled themselves to their general.

After the death of Strabo, a charge was laid that he had converted the public money to his own use, and Pompey, as his heir, was obliged to answer it. Upon enquiry, he found that Alexander, one of the enfranchised slaves, had secreted most of the money; and he took care to inform the magistrates of the particulars. He was accused, however, himself, of having taken some hunting-nets and books out of the spoils of Asculum; and, it is true, his father gave them to him when he took the place; but he lost them at the return of Cinna to Rome, when that general's creatures broke into, and pillaged his house. In this affair he maintained the combat well with his adversary at the bar, and shewed an acuteness and firmness
above

above his years ; which gained him so much applause, that Antistius, the prætor, who had the hearing of the cause, conceived an affection for him, and offered him his daughter in marriage. The proposal accordingly was made to his friends. Pompey accepted it ; and the treaty was concluded privately. The people, however, had some notion of the thing from the pains which Antistius took for Pompey ; and at last, when he pronounced the sentence, in the name of all the judges, by which Pompey was acquitted, the multitude, as it were, upon a signal given, broke out in the old marriage acclamation of *Talasio*.

The origin of the term is said to have been this. When the principal Romans seized the daughters of the Sabines, who were come to see the games they were celebrating to entrap them, some herdsmen and shepherds laid hold of a virgin remarkably tall and handsome ; and, lest she should be taken from them, as they carried her off, they cried all the way they went, *Talasio*. Talasius was a young man, universally beloved and admired ; therefore all who heard them, delighted with the intention, joined in the cry, and accompanied them with plaudits. They tell us, the marriage of Talasius proved fortunate, and thence all bridegrooms, by way of mirth, were welcomed with that acclamation. This is the most probable account I can find of the term*.

Pompey in a little time married Antistia ; and afterwards repaired to Cinna's camp. But finding some unjust charges laid against him there, he took the first private opportunity to withdraw. As he was no-where to be found, a rumour prevailed in the army, that Cinna had put the young man to death : upon which, numbers who hated Cinna, and could no longer bear with his cruelties, attacked his quarters. He fled for his life ; and being overtaken by one of the inferior officers, who pursued him with a drawn sword, he fell upon his knees, and offered him

* See more of this in the life of Romulus.

his ring, which was of no small value. The officer answered, with great ferocity, "I am not come to sign a contract, but to punish an impious and lawless tyrant," and then killed him upon the spot.

Such was the end of Cinna; after whom Carbo, a tyrant still more savage, took the reins of government. It was not long, however, before Sylla returned to Italy, to the great satisfaction of most of the Romans, who, in their present unhappy circumstances, thought the change of their master no small advantage. To such a desperate state had their calamities brought them, that no longer hoping for liberty, they sought only the most tolerable servitude.

At that time Pompey was in the Picene, whither he had retired, partly because he had lands there, but more on account of an old attachment which the cities in that district had to his family. As he observed that the best and most considerable of the citizens left their houses, and took refuge in Sylla's camp as in a port, he resolved to do the same. At the same time he thought it did not become him to go like a fugitive who wanted protection, but rather in a respectable manner at the head of an army. He therefore tried what levies he could make in the Picene*, and the people readily repaired to his standard; rejecting the applications of Carbo. On this occasion, one Vindius happening to say, "Pompey is just come from under the hands of the pedagogue, and all on a sudden is become a demagogue among you," they were so provoked, that they fell upon him and cut him to pieces.

Thus Pompey, at the age of twenty-three, without a commission from any superior authority, erected himself into a general; and having placed his tribunal in the most public part of the great city of Auximum, by a formal decree commanded the Ventidii, two brothers who opposed him in behalf of Carbo, to depart the city: he enlisted soldiers; he ap-

* Now the march of Ancona.

pointed tribunes, centurions, and other officers, according to the established custom. He did the same in all the neighbouring cities; for the partisans of Carbo retired and gave place to him, and the rest were glad to range themselves under his banners. So that in a little time he raised three complete legions, and furnished himself with provisions, beasts of burden, carriages, and, in short, with the whole apparatus of war.

In this form he moved towards Sylla, not by hasty marches, nor as if he wanted to conceal himself; for he stopped by the way to harass the enemy, and attempted to draw off from Carbo, all the parts of Italy through which he passed. At last, three generals of the opposite party, Carinna, Cœlius, and Brutus, came against him all at once, not in front, or in one body, but they hemmed him in with their three armies, in hopes to demolish him entirely.

Pompey, far from being terrified, assembled all his forces, and charged the army of Brutus at the head of his cavalry. The Gaulish horse on the enemy's side sustained the first shock; but Pompey attacked the foremost of them, who was a man of prodigious strength, and brought him down with a push of his spear. The rest immediately fled, and threw the infantry into such disorder, that the whole was soon put to flight. This produced so great a quarrel among the three generals, that they parted, and took separate routes. In consequence of which, the cities, concluding that the fears of the enemy had made them part, adopted the interests of Pompey.

Not long after, Scipio the consul advanced to engage him. But before the infantry were near enough to discharge their lances, Scipio's soldiers saluted those of Pompey, and came over to them. Scipio, therefore, was forced to fly. At last Carbo sent a large body of cavalry against Pompey near the river Arfis. He gave them so warm a reception, that they were soon broken, and in the pursuit he drove them upon impracticable ground; so that finding it impossible
to

to escape, they surrendered themselves with their arms and horses.

Sylla had not yet been informed of these transactions; but upon the first news of Pompey's being engaged with so many adversaries, and such respectable generals, he dreaded the consequence, and marched with all expedition to his assistance. Pompey having intelligence of his approach, ordered his officers to see that the troops were armed and drawn up in such a manner, as to make the handsomest and most gallant appearance before the commander in chief. For he expected great honours from him, and he obtained greater. Sylla no sooner saw Pompey advancing to meet him, with an army in excellent condition, both as to the age and size of the men, and the spirits which success had given them, than he alighted; and upon being saluted of course by Pompey, as *imperator*, he returned his salutation with the same title: though no one imagined that he would have honoured a young man, not yet admitted into the senate, with a title for which he was contending with the Scipios and the Marii. The rest of his behaviour was as respectful as that in the first interview. He used to rise up and uncover his head, whenever Pompey came to him; which he was rarely observed to do for any other, though he had a number of persons of distinction about him.

Pompey was not elated with these honours. On the contrary, when Sylla wanted to send him into Gaul, where Metellus had done nothing worthy of the forces under his direction, he said, "It was not right to take the command from a man who was his superior both in age and character; but if Metellus should desire his assistance in the conduct of the war, it was at his service." Metellus accepted the proposal, and wrote to him to come; whereupon he entered Gaul, and not only signalized his own valour and capacity, but excited once more the spirit of adventure in Metellus, which was almost extinguished with age: just as brass in a state of fusion is said to melt a cold plate sooner

fooner than fire itself. But as it is not usual, when a champion has distinguished himself in the lists, and gained the prize in all the games, to record or to take any notice of the performances of his younger years; so the actions of Pompey, in this period, though extraordinary in themselves, yet being eclipsed by the number and importance of his later expeditions, I shall forbear to mention, lest by dwelling upon his first essays, I should not leave myself room for those greater and more critical events which mark his character and turn of mind.

After Sylla had made himself master of Italy, and was declared dictator, he rewarded his principal officers with riches and honours; making them liberal grants of whatever they applied for. But he was most struck with the excellent qualities of Pompey, and was persuaded that he owed more to his services than those of any other man. He therefore resolved, if possible, to take him into his alliance; and, as his wife Metella was perfectly of his opinion, they persuaded Pompey to divorce Antistia, and to marry *Æmilia*, the daughter-in-law of Sylla, whom Metella had by Scaurus, and who was at that time pregnant by another marriage.

Nothing could be more tyrannical than this new contract. It was suitable, indeed, to the times of Sylla, but it ill became the character of Pompey to take *Æmilia*, pregnant as she was, from another, and bring her into his house, and at the same time to repudiate Antistia, distressed as she must be for a father whom she had lately lost on account of this cruel husband. For Antistius was killed in the senate-house, because it was thought his regard for Pompey had attached him to the cause of Sylla. And her mother, upon this divorce, laid violent hands upon herself. This was an additional scene of misery in that tragical marriage; as was also the fate of *Æmilia* in Pompey's house, who died there in child-bed.

Soon

Soon after this, Sylla received an account, that Perpenna had made himself master of Sicily, where he afforded an asylum to the party which opposed the reigning powers. Carbo was hovering with a fleet about that island; Domitius had entered Africa; and many other persons of great distinction, who had escaped the fury of the proscriptions by flight, had taken refuge there. Pompey was sent against them with a considerable armament. He soon forced Perpenna to quit the island; and having recovered the cities, which had been much harassed by the armies that were there before his, he behaved to them all with great humanity, except the Mamertines, who were seated in Messina. That people had refused to appear before his tribunal, and to acknowledge his jurisdiction, alleging that they stood excused by an ancient privilege granted them by the Romans. He answered, "Will you never have done with citing laws and privileges to men who wear swords?" His behaviour, too, to Carbo, in his misfortunes, appeared inhuman. For, if it was necessary, as perhaps it was, to put him to death, he should have done it immediately, and then it would have been the work of him that gave orders for it. But, instead of that, he caused a Roman, who had been honoured with three consulships, to be brought in chains before his tribunal, where he sat in judgment on him, to the regret of all the spectators, and ordered him to be led off to execution. When they were carrying him off, and he beheld the sword drawn, he was so much disordered at it, that he was forced to beg a moment's respite, and a private place for the necessities of nature.

Caius Oppius *, the friend of Cæsar, writes, that Pompey likewise treated Quintus Valerius with inhumanity. For, knowing him to be a man of letters,

* The same who wrote an account of the Spanish war. He was also a biographer; but his works of that kind are lost. He was mean enough to write a treatise to shew, that Cæsar was not the son of Cæsar.

and

and that few were to be compared to him in point of knowledge, he took him (he says) aside, and after he had walked with him till he had satisfied himself upon several points of learning, commanded his servants to take him to the block. But we must be very cautious how we give credit to Oppius, when he speaks of the friends and enemies of Cæsar. Pompey, indeed, was under the necessity of punishing the principal enemies of Sylla, particularly when they were taken publicly. But others he suffered to escape, and even assisted some in getting off.

He had resolved to chastise the Himereans for attempting to support his enemies, when the orator Sthenis told him, "He would act unjustly if he passed by the person that was guilty, and punished the innocent." Pompey asked him, "Who was the guilty person," and he answered, "I am the man. I persuaded my friends, and compelled my enemies, to take the measures they did." Pompey, delighted with his frank confession and noble spirit, forgave him first, and afterwards all the people of Himera. Being informed that his soldiers committed great disorders in their excursions, he sealed up their swords, and if any of them broke the seal, he took care to have them punished.

While he was making these and other regulations in Sicily, he received a decree of the senate, and letters from Sylla, in which he was commanded to cross over to Africa, and to carry on the war with the utmost vigour against Domitius, who had assembled a much more powerful army than that which Marius carried not long before from Africa to Italy, when he made himself master of Rome, and of a fugitive became a tyrant. Pompey soon finished his preparations for this expedition; and leaving the command in Sicily to Memmius, his sister's husband, he set sail with a hundred and twenty armed vessels, and eight hundred store-ships, laden with provisions, arms, money, and machines of war. Part of his fleet landed

at

at Utica, and part at Carthage; immediately after which seven thousand of the enemy came over to him; and he had brought with him six legions complete.

On his arrival he met with a whimsical adventure. Some of his soldiers, it seems, found a treasure, and shared considerable sums. The thing getting air, the rest of the troops concluded, that the place was full of money; which the Carthaginians had hidden there in some time of public distress. Pompey, therefore, could make no use of them for several days: they were searching for treasures; and he had nothing to do but walk about and amuse himself with the sight of so many thousands digging and turning up the ground. At last they gave up the point, and bade him lead them wherever he pleased, for they were sufficiently punished for their folly.

Domitius advanced to meet him, and put his troops in order of battle. There happened to be a channel between them, craggy and difficult to pass. In the morning it began, moreover, to rain, and the wind blew violently; inasmuch that Domitius, not imagining there would be any action that day, ordered his army to retire. But Pompey looked upon this as his opportunity, and he passed the defile with the utmost expedition. The enemy stood upon their defence, but it was in a disorderly and tumultuous manner, and the resistance they made was neither general nor uniform. Besides the wind and rain beat in their faces. The storm incommoded the Romans too, for they could not well distinguish each other. Nay, Pompey himself was in danger of being killed by a soldier who asked him the word, and received not a speedy answer. At length, however, he routed the enemy, with great slaughter; not above three thousand of them escaping out of twenty thousand. The soldiers then saluted Pompey *imperator*, but he said he would not accept that title while the enemy's camp stood untouched; therefore, if they chose to confer such an honour upon him,

him, they must first make themselves master of the entrenchments.

At that instant they advanced with great fury against them. Pompey fought without his helmet for fear of such an accident as he had just escaped. The camp was taken, and Domitius slain; in consequence of which, most of the cities immediately submitted, and the rest were taken by assault. He took Jarbas, one of the confederates of Domitius, prisoner, and bestowed his crown on Hiempfal. Advancing with the same tide of fortune, and while his army had all the spirits inspired by success, he entered Numidia, in which he continued his march for several days, and subdued all that came in his way. Thus he revived the terror of the Roman name, which the barbarians had begun to disregard. Nay, he chose not to leave the savage beasts in the deserts, without giving them a specimen of the Roman valour and success. Accordingly he spent a few days in hunting lions and elephants. The whole time he passed in Africa, they tell us, was not above forty days; in which he defeated the enemy, reduced the whole country, and brought the affairs of its kings under proper regulations, though he was only in his twenty-fourth year.

Upon his return to Utica, he received letters from Sylla, in which he was ordered to send home the rest of his army, and to wait there with one legion only for a successor. This gave him a great deal of uneasiness, which he kept to himself, but the army expressed their indignation aloud; insomuch that when he intreated them to return to Italy, they launched out into abusive terms against Sylla, and declared they would never abandon Pompey, or suffer him to trust a tyrant. At first he endeavoured to pacify them with mild representations; and when he found those had no effect, he descended from the tribunal, and retired to his tent in tears. However, they went and took him thence, and placed him again upon the tribunal, where they spent great part of the day;

they insisting that he should stay and keep the command, and he in persuading them to obey Sylla's orders, and to form no new faction. At last, seeing no end of their clamours and importunity, he assured them, with an oath, "That he would kill himself, if they attempted to force him." And even this hardly brought them to desist.

The first news that Sylla heard was, that Pompey had revolted; upon which, he said to his friends, "Then it is my fate to have to contend with boys in my old age." This he said because Marius, who was very young, had brought him into so much trouble and danger. But when he received true information of the affair, and observed that all the people flocked out to receive him, and to conduct him home with marks of great regard, he resolved to exceed them in his regards, if possible. He, therefore, hastened to meet him, and embracing him in the most affectionate manner, saluted him aloud by the surname of *Magnus*, or the *Great*: at the same time he ordered all about him to give him the same appellation. Others say, it was given him by the whole army in Africa, but did not generally obtain till it was authorized by Sylla. It is certain, he was the last to take it himself, and he did not make use of it till a long time after, when he was sent into Spain with the dignity of proconsul against Sertorius. Then he began to write himself in his letters and in all his edicts *Pompey the Great*; for the world was accustomed to the name, and it was no longer invidious. In this respect we may justly admire the wisdom of the ancient Romans, who bestowed on their great men such honourable names and titles, not only for military achievements, but for the great qualities and arts which adorn civil life. Thus the people gave the surname of *Maximus* to Valerius*, for reconciling them to the senate after a

* This was Marcus Valerius, the brother of Valerius Publicola, who was dictator.

violent

violent dissension, and to Fabius Rullus for expelling some persons descended of enfranchised slaves *, who had been admitted into the senate on account of their opulent fortunes.

When Pompey arrived at Rome, he demanded a triumph, in which he was opposed by Sylla. The latter alleged, "That the laws did not allow that honour to any person who was not either consul or prætor †. Hence it was, that the first Scipio, when he returned victorious from greater wars and conflicts with the Carthaginians in Spain, did not demand a triumph; for he was neither consul nor prætor." He added, "That if Pompey, who was yet little better than a beardless youth, and who was not of age to be admitted into the senate, should enter the city in triumph, it would bring an *odium* both upon the dictator's power, and those honours of his friend." Those arguments Sylla insisted on, to shew him, he would not allow of his triumph, and that, in case he persisted, he would chastise his obstinacy.

Pompey, not in the least intimidated, bade him consider, "That more worshipped the rising than the setting sun;" intimating that his power was increasing, and Sylla's upon the decline. Sylla did not well hear what he said, but perceiving by the looks and gestures of the company that they were struck with the expression, he asked what it was. When he was told it, he admired the spirit of Pompey, and cried, "Let him triumph! let him triumph!"

* It was not his expelling the descendants of enfranchised slaves from the senate, nor yet his glorious victories, which procured Fabius the surname of Maximus; but his reducing the populace of Rome into four tribes, who before were dispersed among all the tribes, and by that means had too much influence in elections and other public affairs. These were called *tribus urbanæ*. Liv. *lib.* 46.

† Livy (*lib.* xxxi.) tells us, the senate refused L. Cornelius Lentulus a triumph, for the same reason, though they thought his achievements worthy that honour.

As Pompey perceived a strong spirit of envy and jealousy on this occasion, it is said, that to mortify those who gave in to it the more, he resolved to have his chariot drawn by four elephants; for he had brought a number from Africa, which he had taken from the kings of that country. But finding the gate too narrow, he gave up that design, and contented himself with horses.

His soldiers, not having obtained all they expected, were inclined to disturb the procession, but he took no pains to satisfy them: he said, "He had rather give up his triumph, than submit to flatter them." Whereupon Servilius, one of the most considerable men in Rome, and one who had been most vigorous in opposing the triumph, declared, "He now found Pompey really the *Great*, and worthy of a triumph."

There is no doubt that he might then have been easily admitted a senator, if he had desired it; but his ambition was to pursue honour in a more uncommon track. It would have been nothing strange, if Pompey had been a senator before the age fixed for it; but it was a very extraordinary instance of honour, to lead up a triumph before he was a senator. And it contributed not a little to gain him the affections of the multitude; the people were delighted to see him, after his triumph, class with the equestrian order.

Sylla was not without uneasiness at finding him advance so fast in reputation and power; yet he could not think of preventing it, till with a high hand, and entirely against his will, Pompey raised Lepidus to the consulship*, by assisting him with all his interest in the election. Then Sylla seeing him conducted home by the people, through the *forum*, thus addressed him: "I see, young man, you are proud of your victory. And undoubtedly it was a great and extraordinary thing, by your management of the people, to obtain for Lepidus, the worst man in Rome, the re-

* Marcus Æmilius Lepidus, who by Pompey's interest was declared consul with Q. Lutatius Catulus, in the year of Rome 675.

“ turn before Catulus, one of the worthiest and the
“ best. But awake, I charge you, and be upon
“ your guard. For you have now made your ad-
“ versary stronger than yourself.”

The displeasure Sylla entertained in his heart against Pompey, appeared most plainly by his will. He left considerable legacies to his friends, and appointed them guardians to his son, but he never once mentioned Pompey. The latter, notwithstanding, bore this with great temper and moderation; and when Lepidus and others opposed his being buried in the *Campus Martius*, and his having the honours of a public funeral, he interposed, and by his presence not only secured, but did honour to the procession.

Sylla's predictions were verified soon after his death. Lepidus wanted to usurp the authority of a dictator; and his proceedings were not indirect, or veiled with specious pretences. He immediately took up arms, and assembled the disaffected remains of the factions which Sylla could not entirely suppress. As for his colleague Catulus, the uncorrupted part of the senate and people were attached to him, and, in point of prudence and justice, there was not a man in Rome who had a greater character; but he was more able to direct the civil government, than the operations of war. This crisis, therefore, called for Pompey, and he did not deliberate which side he should take. He joined the honest party, and was declared general against Lepidus, who by this time had reduced great part of Italy, and was master of Cisalpine Gaul, where Brutus acted for him with a considerable force.

When Pompey took the field, he easily made his way in other parts, but he lay a long time before Mutina, which was defended by Brutus. Mean while Lepidus advanced by hasty marches to Rome, and sitting down before it, demanded a second consulship. The inhabitants were greatly alarmed at his numbers; but their fears were dissipated by a letter from Pompey, in which he assured them, he had terminated the

war without striking a blow. For Brutus, whether he betrayed his army, or they betrayed him, surrendered himself to Pompey; and having a party of horse given him as an escort, retired to a little town upon the Po. Pompey, however, sent Geminius the next day to dispatch him; which brought no small stain upon his character. Immediately after Brutus came over to him, he had informed the senate by letter, it was a measure that general had voluntarily adopted; and yet on the morrow he put him to death, and wrote other letters, containing heavy charges against him. This was the father of that Brutus, who, together with Cassius, flew Cæsar. But the son did not resemble the father, either in war, or in his death, as appears from the life we have given of him. Lepidus, being soon driven out of Italy, fled into Sardinia, where he died of grief, not in consequence of the ruin of his affairs, but of meeting with a billet (as we are told), by which he discovered that his wife had dishonoured his bed.

At that time, Sertorius, an officer very different from Lepidus, was in possession of Spain, and not a little formidable to Rome itself; all the remains of the civil wars being collected in him, just as in a dangerous disease all the vicious humours flow to a distempered part. He had already defeated several generals of less distinction, and he was then engaged with Metellus Pius, a man of great character in general, and particularly in war; but age seemed to have abated that vigour, which is necessary for seizing and making the best advantage of critical occasions. On the other hand, nothing could exceed the ardour and expedition with which Sertorius snatched those opportunities from him. He came on in the most daring manner, and more like a captain of banditti, than a commander of regular forces; annoying with ambuscades, and other unforeseen alarms, a champion who proceeded by the common rules, and whose skill lay in the management of heavy armed forces.

At

At this juncture, Pompey having an army without employment, endeavoured to prevail with the senate to send him to the assistance of Metellus. Mean time, Catulus ordered him to disband his forces; but he found various pretences for remaining in arms in the neighbourhood of Rome; till at last, upon the motion of Lucius Philippus, he obtained the command he wanted. On this occasion, we are told, one of the senators, somewhat surpris'd at the motion, asked him who made it, whether his meaning was to send out Pompey (*pro consule*) as the representative of a consul? "No," answered he, "but [*pro consulibus*] as the representative of both consuls;" intimating by this the incapacity of the consuls of that year.

When Pompey arrived in Spain, new hopes were excited, as is usual upon the appearance of a new general of reputation; and such of the Spanish nations as were not very firmly attached to Sertorius, began to change their opinions, and to go over to the Romans. Sertorius then expressed himself in a very insolent and contemptuous manner with respect to Pompey: he said, "He should want no other weapons than a rod and ferula to chastise the boy with, were it not that he feared the old woman;" meaning Metellus. But in fact it was Pompey he was afraid of, and on his account he carried on his operations with much greater caution. For Metellus gave in to a course of luxury and pleasure, which no one could have expected, and changed the simplicity of a soldier's life for a life of pomp and parade. Hence Pompey gained additional honour and interest; for he cultivated plainness and frugality more than ever; though he had not, in that respect, much to correct in himself, being naturally sober and regular in his desires.

The war appeared in many forms; but nothing touched Pompey so nearly as the loss of Lauron, which Sertorius took before his eyes. Pompey thought he had blocked up the enemy, and spoke of it in high terms, when suddenly he found himself surrounded,

and being afraid to move, had the mortification to see the city laid in ashes in his presence. However, in an engagement near Valencia, he defeated Herennius and Perpenna, officers of considerable rank, who had taken part with Sertorius, and acted as his lieutenants, and killed above ten thousand of their men.

Elated with this advantage, he hastened to attack Sertorius, that Metellus might have no share in the victory. He found him near the river Sucro, and they engaged near the close of day. Both were afraid Metellus should come up; Pompey wanting to fight alone, and Sertorius to have but one general to fight with. The issue of the battle was doubtful; one wing in each army being victorious. But of the two generals Sertorius gained the greatest honour, for he routed the battalions that opposed him. As for Pompey, he was attacked on horseback by one of the enemy's infantry, a man of uncommon size. While they were close engaged with their swords, the strokes happened to light on each other's hand, but with different success; Pompey received only a slight wound, and he lopt off the other's hand. Numbers then fell upon Pompey, for his troops in that quarter were already broken; but he escaped beyond all expectation, by quitting his horse, with gold trappings and other valuables furniture, to the barbarians, who quarrelled and came to blows about dividing the spoil.

Next morning at break of day, both drew up again, to give the finishing stroke to the victory, to which both laid claim. But, upon Metellus coming up, Sertorius retired, and his army dispersed. Nothing was more common than for his forces to disperse in that manner, and afterwards to knit again; so that Sertorius was often seen wandering alone, and as often advancing again at the head of a hundred and fifty thousand men, like a torrent swelled with sudden rains.

After the battle, Pompey went to wait on Metellus; and, upon approaching him, he ordered his *lictors* to lower their *fasces*, by way of compliment to Metellus

as

as his superior. But Metellus would not suffer it; and, indeed, in all respects he behaved to Pompey with great politeness, taking nothing upon him on account of his consular dignity, or his being the older man, except to give the word, when they encamped together. And very often they had separate camps; for the enemy, by his artful and various measures, by making his appearance at different places almost at the same instant, and by drawing them from one action to another, obliged them to divide. He cut off their provisions, he laid waste the country, he made himself master of the sea; the consequence of which was, that they were both forced to quit their own provinces, and to go into those of others for supplies.

Pompey, having exhausted most of his own fortune in support of the war, applied to the senate for money to pay the troops, declaring he would return with his army to Italy, if they did not send it him. Lucullus, who was then consul, though he was upon ill terms with Pompey, took care to furnish him with the money as soon as possible; because he wanted to be employed himself in the Mithridatic war, and he was afraid to give Pompey a pretext to leave Sertorius, and to solicit the command against Mithridates, which was a more honourable, and yet appeared a less difficult commission.

Meantime Sertorius was assassinated by his own officers*; and Perpenna, who was at the head of the conspirators, undertook to supply his place. He had, indeed, the same troops, the same magazines and supplies, but he had not the same understanding to make a proper use of them. Pompey immediately took the field, and having intelligence that Perpenna was greatly embarrassed as to the measures he should take, he threw out ten cohorts as a bait for him, with orders to spread themselves over the plain. When he found it

* It was three years after the consulate of Lucullus, that Sertorius was assassinated.

took, and that Perpenna was busied in the pursuit of that handful of men, he suddenly made his appearance with the main body, attacked the enemy, and routed him entirely. Most of the officers fell in the battle; Perpenna himself was taken prisoner, and brought to Pompey, who commanded him to be put to death. Nevertheless, Pompey is not to be accused of ingratitude, nor are we to suppose him (as some will have it) forgetful of the services he had received from that officer in Sicily. On the contrary, he acted with a wisdom and dignity of mind that proved very salutary to the public. Perpenna having got the papers of Sertorius into his hands, shewed letters by which some of the most powerful men in Rome, who were desirous to raise new commotions, and overturn the establishment, had invited Sertorius into Italy. But Pompey, fearing those letters might excite greater wars than that he was then finishing, put Perpenna to death, and burnt the papers without reading them. He stayed just long enough in Spain to compose the troubles, and to remove such uneasinesses as might tend to break the peace; after which he marched back to Italy, where he arrived, as fortune would have it, when the *servile* war was at the height.

Crassus, who had the command in that war, upon the arrival of Pompey, who, he feared, might snatch the laurels out of his hand, resolved to come to a battle, however hazardous it might prove. He succeeded, and killed twelve thousand three hundred of the enemy. Yet fortune, in some sort, interweaved this with the honours of Pompey; for he killed five thousand of the slaves, whom he fell in with as they fled after the battle. Immediately upon this, to be beforehand with Crassus, he wrote to the senate, "That Crassus had beaten the gladiators in a pitched battle, but that it was *he* who had cut up the war by the roots." The Romans took a pleasure in speaking of this one among another, on account of their regard for Pompey; which was such, that no part of the success

success in Spain, against Sertorius, was ascribed by a man of them, either in jest or earnest, to any but Pompey.

Yet these honours and this high veneration for the man, were mixed with some fears and jealousies that he would not disband his army, but treading in the steps of Sylla raise himself by the sword to sovereign power, and maintain himself in it, as Sylla had done*. Hence, the number of those that went out of fear to meet him and congratulate him on his return, was equal to that of those who went out of love. But when he had removed this suspicion, by declaring that he would dismiss his troops immediately after the triumph, there remained only one more subject for envious tongues; which was, that he paid more attention to the commons than to the senate; and whereas Sylla had destroyed the authority of the tribunes, he was determined to re-establish it, in order to gain the affections of the people. This was true: for there never was any thing they had so much set their hearts upon, or longed for so extravagantly, as to see the tribunitial power put in their hands again. So that Pompey looked upon it as a peculiar happiness, that he had an opportunity to bring that affair about; knowing that if any one should be beforehand with him in this design, he should never find any means of making so agreeable a return for the kind regards of the people.

* Cicero, in his epistles to Atticus, says, Pompey made but little secret of this unjustifiable ambition. The passages are remarkable. *Mirandum enim in modum Cneius noster Syllani regni similitudinem concupivit*: Εἶδω, σοι λεγω, nihil ille unquam minus obscure tulit. Lib. vii. ep. 9. "Our friend Pompey is wonderfully desirous of obtaining a power like that of Sylla: I tell you no more than what I know, for he makes no secret of it" And again; *Hoc turpe Cneius noster biennio ante cogitavit; ita Sylla turit animus ejus, et proscripturit*. Ibid, ep. 10. "Pompey has been forming this infamous design for these two years past; so strongly is he bent upon imitating Sylla, and proscribing like him." Hence we see how happy it was for Rome, that in the civil wars, Cæsar, and not Pompey, proved the conqueror.

A second triumph was decreed him* together with the consulship. But these were not considered as the most extraordinary instances of his power. The strongest proof of his greatness was, that Crassus, the richest, the most eloquent, and most powerful man in the administration, who used to look down upon Pompey and all the world, did not venture to solicit the consulship without first asking Pompey's leave. Pompey, who had long wished for an opportunity to lay an obligation upon him, received the application with pleasure, and made great interest with the people in his behalf; declaring he should take their giving him Crassus for a colleague, as kindly as their favour to himself.

Yet when they were elected consuls, they disagreed in every thing, and were embroiled in all their measures. Crassus had most interest with the senate, and Pompey with the people. For he had restored them the tribunitial power, and had suffered a law to be made, that judges should again be appointed out of the equestrian order†. However, the most agreeable spectacle of all to the people was Pompey himself, when he went to claim his exemption from serving in the wars. It was the custom for a Roman knight, when he had served the time ordered by law, to lead his horse into the *forum*, before the two magistrates called censors; and after having given account of the generals and other officers under whom he had made his campaigns, and of his own actions in them, to demand his discharge. On these occasions they received proper marks of honour or disgrace, according to their behaviour.

* He triumphed towards the end of the year of Rome 682, and at the same time was declared consul for the year ensuing. This was a peculiar honour, to gain the consulate without first bearing the subordinate offices: but his two triumphs and great services excused that deviation from the common rules.

† L. Aurelius Cotta carried that point when he was prætor; and Plutarch says *again*, because Caius Gracchus had conveyed that privilege to the knights fifty years before.

Gellius and Lentulus were then censors, and had taken their seats in a manner that became their dignity, to review the whole equestrian order, when Pompey was seen at a distance, with all the badges of his office, as consul, leading his horse by the bridle. As soon as he was near enough to be observed by the censors, he ordered his *lictors* to make an opening, and advanced, with his horse in hand to the foot of the tribunal. The people were struck with admiration, and a profound silence took place; at the same time a joy, mingled with reverence, was visible in the countenances of the censors. The senior censor then addressed him as follows: "Pompey the Great, I demand of you, whether you have served all the campaigns required by law?" He answered with a loud voice, "I have served them all; and all under myself, as general." The people were so charmed with this answer that there was no end of their acclamations. At last, the censors rose up, and conducted Pompey to his house, to indulge the multitude, who followed him, with the loudest plaudits.

When the end of the consulship approached, and his difference with Crassus was increasing daily, Caius Aurelius*, a man who was of the equestrian order, but had never intermeddled with state affairs, one day when the people were met in full assembly, ascended the *rostra*, and said, "Jupiter had appeared to him in a dream, and commanded him to acquaint the consuls, that they must take care to be reconciled before they laid down their office." Pompey stood still, and held his peace; but Crassus went and gave him his hand, and saluted him in a friendly manner. At the same time he addressed the people, as follows: "I think, my fellow-citizens, there is nothing dishonourable or mean in making the first advances to Pompey, whom you scrupled not to dignify with the name of *the Great*, when he was yet but a

* Ovatus Aurelius.

" beardless

“ beardless youth, and for whom you voted two triumphs before he was a senator.” Thus reconciled, they laid down the consulship.

Craffus continued his former manner of life; but Pompey now seldom chose to plead the causes of those that applied to him, and by degrees he left the bar. Indeed, he seldom appeared in public, and when he did, it was always with a great train of friends and attendants; so that it was not easy either to speak to him or see him, but in the midst of a crowd. He took pleasure in having a number of retainers about him, because he thought it gave him an air of greatness and majesty, and he was persuaded that dignity should be kept from being soiled by the familiarity, and indeed by the very touch, of the many. For those who are raised to greatness by arms, and know not how to descend again to the equality required in a republic, are very liable to fall into contempt when they resume the robe of peace. The soldier is desirous to preserve the rank in the *forum* which he had in the field: and he who cannot distinguish himself in the field, thinks it intolerable to give place in the administration too. When therefore the latter has got the man who shone in camps and triumphs, into the assemblies at home, and finds him attempting to maintain the same pre-eminence there, of course he endeavours to humble him; whereas, if the warrior pretends not to take the lead in domestic councils, he is readily allowed the palm of military glory. This soon appeared from the subsequent events.

The power of the pirates had its foundation in Cilicia. Their progress was the more dangerous because at first it was little taken notice of. In the Mithridatic war they assumed new confidence and courage, on account of some services they had rendered the king. After this, the Romans being engaged in civil wars at the very gates of their capital, the sea was left unguarded, and the pirates by degrees attempted higher things;

things; they not only attacked ships, but islands and maritime towns. Many persons, distinguished for their wealth, their birth, and their capacity, embarked with them, and assisted in their depredations, as if their employment had been worthy the ambition of men of honour. They had in various places arsenals, ports, and watch-towers, all strongly fortified. Their fleets were not only extremely well manned, supplied with skilful pilots, and fitted for their business by their lightness and celerity, but there was a parade of vanity about them more mortifying than their strength, in gilded sterns, purple canopies, and plated oars; as if they took a pride and triumphed in their villainy. Music resounded, and drunken revels were exhibited on every coast. Here generals were made prisoners; there the cities the pirates had taken were paying their ransom; all to the great disgrace of the Roman power. The number of their galleys amounted to a thousand, and the cities they were masters of, to four hundred.

Temples, which had stood inviolably sacred till that time, they plundered. They ruined the temple of Apollo at Claros; that where he was worshipped under the title of Didymæus*; that of the Cabiri in Samothrace; that of Ceres † at Hermiona; that of Æsculapius at Epidaurus; those of Neptune in the Isthmus, at Tænarus; and in Calauria; those of Apollo at Aëgium and in the isle of Leucas; those of Juno at Samos, Argos, and the promontory of Lacinium ‡.

* So called from Didyme, in the territories of Miletus.

† Pausanias (*in Laconic.*) tells us, the Lacedæmonians worship Ceres under the name of *Chthonia*; and (*in Corinthiac.*) he gives us the reason of her having that name. "The Argives say, that *Chthonia*, the daughter of Colontas, having been saved out of a conflagration by Ceres, and conveyed to Hermione, built a temple to that goddess, who was worshipped there under the name of *Chthonia*."

‡ The printed text gives us the erroneous reading of *Leucanium*, but two manuscripts give us *Lacinium*. Livy often mentions Juno *Lacinia*.

They

They likewise offered strange sacrifices, those of Olympus I mean* : and they celebrated certain secret mysteries, among which those of Mithra continue to this day †, being originally instituted by them. They not only insulted the Romans at sea, but infested the great roads, and plundered the villas near the coast: They carried off Sextilius and Bellinus, two prætors, in their purple robes, with all their servants and *licitors*, They seized the daughter of Antony, a man who had been honoured with a triumph, as she was going to her country house, and he was forced to pay a large ransom for her.

But the most contemptuous circumstance of all was, that when they had taken a prisoner, and he cried out that he was a Roman, and told them his name; they pretended to be struck with terror, smote their thighs, and fell upon their knees to ask him pardon. The poor man seeing them thus humble themselves before him, thought them in earnest, and said he would forgive them; for some were so officious as to put on his shoes, and others to help him on with his gown, that his quality might no more be mistaken. When they had carried on this farce, and enjoyed it for some time, they let a ladder down into the sea, and bade him go in peace; and if he refused to do it, they pushed him off the deck and drowned him.

Their power extended over the whole Tuscan sea, so that the Romans found their trade and navigation entirely cut off. The consequence of which was, that their markets were not supplied, and they had reason to apprehend a famine. This, at last, put them upon sending Pompey to clear the sea of pirates. Gabinius, one of Pompey's intimate friends, proposed the

* Not on mount Olympus, but in the city of Olympus, near Phafelis in Pamphylia, which was one of the receptacles of the pirates. What sort of sacrifices they used to offer there, is not known.

† According to Herodotus, the Persians worshipped Venus under the name of Mithres, or Mithra; but the sun is worshipped in that country.

decree,

decree *, which created him, not admiral, but monarch, and invested him with absolute power. The decree gave him the empire of the sea as far as the pillars of Hercules, and of the land for four hundred furlongs from the coasts. There were few parts of the Roman empire which this commission did not take in; and the most considerable of the barbarous nations, and most powerful kings, were moreover comprehended in it. Beside this, he was empowered to choose out of the senators fifteen lieutenants, to act under him, in such districts, and with such authority, as he should appoint. He was to take from the quaestors, and other public receivers, what money he pleased, and equip a fleet of two hundred sail. The number of marine forces, of mariners and rowers, was left entirely to his discretion:

When this decree was read in the assembly, the people received it with inconceivable pleasure. The most respectable part of the senate saw, indeed, that such an absolute and unlimited power was above envy, but they considered it as a real object of fear. They therefore all, except Cæsar, opposed its passing into a law. He was for it, not out of regard for Pompey, but to insinuate himself into the good graces of the people, which he had long been courting. The rest were very severe in their expressions against Pompey; and one of the consuls† venturing to say, “If he imitates Romulus, he will not escape his fate,” was in danger of being pulled in pieces by the populace.

It is true, when Catulus rose up to speak against the law, out of reverence to his person they listened to him with great attention. After he had freely given Pompey the honour that was his due, and said much

* This law was made in the year of Rome 686. The crafty tribune, when he proposed it, did not name Pompey. Pompey was now in the thirty-ninth year of his age. His friend Gabinius, as appears from Cicero, was a man of infamous character.

† The consuls of this year were Calpurnius Piso, and Acilius Glabrio.

in his praise, he advised them to spare him, and not to expose such a man to so many dangers; "for where will you find another," said he, "if you lose him?" They answered with one voice, "Yourself." Finding his arguments had no effect, he retired. Then Roscius mounted the rostrum, but not a man would give ear to him. However, he made signs to them with his fingers, that they should not appoint Pompey alone, but give him a colleague. Incensed at this proposal, they set up such a shout, that a crow, which was flying over the *forum*, was stunned with the force of it, and fell down among the crowd. Hence we may conclude, that when birds fall on such occasions, it is not because the air is so divided with the shock as to leave a *vacuum*, but rather because the sound strikes them like a blow, when it ascends with such force, and produces so violent an agitation.

The assembly broke up that day, without coming to any resolution. When the day came that they were to give their suffrages, Pompey retired into the country: and on receiving information that the decree was passed, he returned to the city by night, to prevent the envy which the multitudes of people coming to meet him, would have excited. Next morning at break of day, he made his appearance, and attended the sacrifice. After which, he summoned an assembly, and obtained a grant of almost as much more as the first decree had given him. He was empowered to fit out five hundred galleys, and to raise an army of a hundred and twenty thousand foot, and five thousand horse. Twenty-four senators were selected, who had all been generals or prætors, and were appointed his lieutenants; and he had two quæstors given him. As the price of provisions fell immediately, the people were greatly pleased, and it gave them occasion to say. "The very name of Pompey had terminated the war."

However, in pursuance of his charge, he divided the whole Mediterranean into thirteen parts, appointing a lieutenant for each, and assigning him a squadron. By
thus

thus stationing his fleets in all quarters, he inclosed the pirates as it were in a net, took great numbers of them, and brought them into harbour. Such of their vessels as had dispersed and made off in time, or could escape the general chace, retired to Cilicia, like so many bees into a hive. Against these he proposed to go himself with sixty of his best gallies; but first he resolved to clear the Tuscan sea, and the coasts of Africa, Sardinia, Corsica, and Sicily, of all piratical adventurers; which he effected in forty days, by his own indefatigable endeavours and those of his lieutenants. But, as the consul Piso was indulging his malignity at home, in wasting his stores, and discharging his seamen, he sent his fleet round to Brundisium, and went himself by land through Tuscany to Rome.

As soon as the people were informed of his approach, they went in crowds to receive him, in the same manner as they had done a few days before, to conduct him on his way. Their extraordinary joy was owing to the speed with which he had executed his commission, so far beyond all expectation, and to the superabundant plenty which reigned in the markets. For this reason Piso was in danger of being deposed from the consulship, and Gabinius had a decree ready drawn up for that purpose. But Pompey would not suffer him to propose it. On the contrary, his speech to the people was full of candour and moderation; and when he had provided such things as he wanted, he went to Brundisium, and put to sea again. Though he was straitened for time, and in his haste sailed by many cities without calling, yet he stopped at Athens. He entered the town and sacrificed to the gods; after which he addressed the people, and then prepared to re-embark immediately. As he went out of the gate he observed two inscriptions, each comprised in one line.

That within the gate was—

But know thyself a man, and be a god.

That without—

We wish'd, we saw; we lov'd, and we ador'd.

Some of the pirates, who yet traversed the seas, made their submission; and as he treated them in a humane manner, when he had them and their ships in his power, others entertained hopes of mercy, and avoiding the other officers, surrendered themselves to Pompey, together with their wives and children. He spared them all; and it was principally by their means that he found out and took a number who were guilty of unpardonable crimes, and therefore had concealed themselves.

Still, however, there remained a great number, and indeed the most powerful part of these corsairs, who sent their families, treasures, and all useless hands, into castles and fortified towns upon mount Taurus. Then they manned their ships, and waited for Pompey at Coracesium, in Cilicia. A battle ensued, and the pirates were defeated; after which they retired into the fort. But they had not been long besieged before they capitulated and surrendered themselves, together with the cities and islands which they had conquered and fortified, and which by their works, as well as situation, were almost impregnable. Thus the war was finished, and the whole force of the pirates destroyed, within three months at the farthest.

Beside the other vessels, Pompey took ninety ships with beaks of brass, and the prisoners amounted to twenty thousand. He did not choose to put them to death, and at the same time he thought it wrong to suffer them to disperse, because they were not only numerous, but warlike and necessitous, and therefore would probably knit again, and give future trouble. He reflected, that man by nature is neither a savage nor unsocial creature; and when he becomes so, it is by vices contrary to nature; yet even then he may be humanised by changing his place of abode, and accustoming him to a new manner of life; as beasts that
are

are naturally wild, put off their fierceness, when they are kept in a domestic way. For this reason he determined to remove the pirates to a great distance from the sea, and bring them to taste the sweets of civil life, by living in cities and by the culture of the ground. He placed some of them in little towns of Cilicia, which were almost desolate, and which received them with pleasure, because at the same time he gave them an additional proportion of lands. He repaired the city of Soli *, which had lately been dismantled and deprived of its inhabitants by Tigranes, king of Armenia, and peopled it with a number of these corsairs. The remainder, which was a considerable body, he planted in Dyma, a city of Achaia, which, though it had a large and fruitful territory, was in want of inhabitants.

Such as looked upon Pompey with envy, found fault with these proceedings; but his conduct with respect to Metellus in Crete, was not agreeable to his best friends. This was a relation of that Metellus who commanded in conjunction with Pompey in Spain, and he had been sent into Crete some time before Pompey was employed in this war. For Crete was the second nursery of pirates after Cilicia. Metellus had destroyed many nests of them there, and the remainder, who were besieged by him at this time, addressed themselves to Pompey as supplicants, and invited him into the island, as included in his commission, and falling within the distance he had a right to carry his arms from the sea. He listened to their application, and by letter enjoined Metellus to take no farther steps in the war. At the same time he ordered the cities of Crete not to obey Metellus, but Lucius Octavius, one of his own lieutenants, whom he sent to take the command,

Octavius went in among the besieged, and fought on their side. A circumstance which rendered Pompey not only odious, but ridiculous. For what could be

* He called it after his own name Pompeiopolis.

more absurd, than to suffer himself to be so blinded by his envy and jealousy of Metellus, as to lend his name and authority to a crew of profligate wretches, to be used as a kind of amulet to defend them. Achilles was not thought to behave like a man, but like a frantic youth carried away by an extravagant passion for fame, when he made signs to his troops not to touch Hector,

*Lest some strong arm should snatch the glorious prize
Before Pelides.*————

But Pompey fought for the common enemies of mankind, in order to deprive a prætor, who was labouring to destroy them, of the honours of a triumph. Metellus, however, pursued his operations, till he took the pirates and put them all to death. As for Octavius, he exposed him in the camp as an object of contempt, and loaded him with reproaches; after which he dismissed him.

When news was brought to Rome, that the war with the pirates was finished, and that Pompey was bestowing his leisure upon visiting the cities, Manilius, one of the tribunes of the people, proposed a decree, which gave him all the provinces and forces under the command of Lucullus, adding likewise Bithynia, which was then governed by Glabrio. It directed him to carry on the war against Mithridates and Tigranes; for which purpose he was also to retain his naval command. This was subjecting at once the whole Roman empire to one man. For, the provinces, which the former decree did not give him, Phrygia, Lycaonia, Galatia, Cappadocia, Cilicia, the Upper Colchis, and Armenia, were granted by this, together with all the forces, which, under Lucullus, had defeated Mithridates and Tigranes.

By this law Lucullus was deprived of the honours he had dearly earned, and had a person to succeed him in his triumph, rather than in the war; but that was not the thing which affected the patricians most. They were persuaded, indeed, that Lucullus was treated with
injustice

injustice and ingratitude; but it was a much more painful circumstance, to think of a power in the hands of Pompey, which they could call nothing but a tyranny*. They therefore exhorted and encouraged each other to oppose the law, and maintain their liberty. Yet when the time came, their fear of the people prevailed, and no one spoke on the occasion but Catulus. He urged many arguments against the bill; and when he found they had no effect upon the commons, he addressed himself to the senators, and called upon them many times from the *rostrum*, "To seek some mountain, as their ancestors had done, some rock whither they might fly for the preservation of liberty."

We are told, however, that the bill was passed by all the tribes †, and almost the same universal authority conferred upon Pompey in his absence, which Sylla did not gain but by the sword, and by carrying war into the bowels of his country. When Pompey received the letters which notified his high promotion, and his friends, who happened to be by, congratulated him on the occasion, he is said to have knit his brows, smote his thigh, and expressed himself as if he was already overburthened and wearied with the weight of power ‡: "Alas! is there no end of my conflicts? How much better would it have been to be one of the undistinguished many, than to be perpetually engaged in war? Shall I never be able to fly from

* "We have then got at last," say they, "a sovereign; the republic is changed into a monarchy; the services of Lucullus, the honour of Glabrio and Marcius, two zealous and worthy senators, are to be sacrificed to the promotion of Pompey. Sylla never carried his tyranny so far."

† Two great men spoke in favour of the law, namely, Cicero and Cæsar. The former aimed at the consulate, which Pompey's party could more easily procure him, than that of Catulus and the senate. As for Cæsar, he was delighted to see the people insensibly lose that republican spirit and love of liberty, which might one day obstruct the vast designs he had already formed.

‡ Is it possible to read this without recollecting the similar character of our Richard the Third?

“envy to a rural retreat, to domestic happiness, and “conjugal endearments?” Even his friends were unable to bear the dissimulation of this speech. They knew that the flame of his native ambition and lust of power was blown up to a greater height by the difference he had with Lucullus, and that he rejoiced the more in the present preference, on that account.

His actions soon unmasked the man. He caused public notice to be given in all places within his commission, that the Roman troops were to repair to him, as well as the kings and princes their allies. Wherever he went, he annulled the acts of Lucullus; remitting the fines he had imposed, and taking away the rewards he had given. In short, he omitted no means to shew the partizans of that general, that all his authority was gone.

Lucullus, of course, complained of this treatment; and their common friends were of opinion, that it would be best for them to come to an interview; accordingly they met in Galatia. As they had both given distinguished proofs of military merit, the *libors* had entwined the rods of each with laurel. Lucullus had marched through a country full of flourishing groves, but Pompey's route was dry and barren, without the ornament or advantage of woods. His laurels, therefore, were parched and withered; which the servants of Lucullus no sooner observed, than they freely supplied them with fresh ones, and crowned his *saſces* with them. This seemed to be an omen that Pompey would bear away the honours and rewards of Lucullus's victories. Lucullus had been consul before Pompey, and was the older man, but Pompey's two triumphs gave him the advantage in point of dignity.

Their interview had at first the face of great politeness and civility. They began with mutual compliments and congratulations: But they soon lost sight even of candour and moderation; they proceeded to abusive language; Pompey reproaching Lucullus with avarice, and Lucullus accusing Pompey of an insatiable
lust

lust of power; infomuch that their friends found it difficult to prevent violence. After this, Lucullus gave his friends and followers lands in Galatia, as a conquered country, and made other considerable grants. But Pompey, who encamped at a little distance from him, declared he would not suffer his orders to be carried into execution, and seduced all his foldiers, except sixteen hundred, who, he knew were so mutinous that they would be as unserviceable to him as they had been ill affected to their old general. Nay, he scrupled not to disparage the conduct of Lucullus, and to represent his actions in a despicable light. "The battles of Lucullus," he said, "were only mock-battles, and he had fought with nothing but the shadows of kings; but that it was left for *him* to contend with real strength, and well disciplined armies; since Mithridates had betaken himself to swords and shields, and knew how to make a proper use of his cavalry."

On the other hand, Lucullus defended himself by observing, "That it was nothing new to Pompey to fight with phantoms and shadows of war: for, like a dastardly bird, he had been accustomed to prey upon those whom he had not killed, and to tear the poor remains of a dying opposition. Thus he had arrogated to himself the conquest of Sertorius, of Lepidus, and Spartacus, which originally belonged to Metellus, to Catulus, and Crassus. Consequently, he did not wonder that he was come to claim the honour of finishing the wars of Armenia and Pontus, after he had thrust himself into the triumph over the fugitive slaves."

In a little time Lucullus departed for Rome; and Pompey having secured the sea from Phœnicia to the Bosphorus, marched in quest of Mithridates, who had an army of thirty thousand foot, and two thousand horse, but durst not stand an engagement. That prince was in possession of a strong and secure post upon a mountain, which he quitted upon Pompey's approach,

approach, because it was destitute of water. Pompey encamped in the same place; and conjecturing, from the nature of the plants and the crevices in the mountain, that springs might be found, he ordered a number of wells to be dug, and the camp was in a short time plentifully supplied with water*. He was not a little surprised that this did not occur to Mithridates during the whole time of his encampment there.

After this, Pompey followed him to his new camp, and drew a line of circumvallation round him. Mithridates stood a siege of forty-five days, after which he found means to steal off with his best troops, having first killed all the sick, and such as could be of no service. Pompey overtook him near the Euphrates, and encamped over against him; but fearing he might pass the river unperceived, he drew out his troops at midnight. At that time Mithridates is said to have had a dream prefigurative of what was to befall him. He thought he was upon the Pontic sea, sailing with a favourable wind, and in sight of the Bosphorus; so that he felicitated his friends in the ship, like a man perfectly safe, and already in harbour. But suddenly he beheld himself in the most destitute condition, swimming upon a piece of wreck. While he was in all the agitation which this dream produced, his friends awaked him, and told him that Pompey was at hand. He was now under a necessity of fighting for his camp, and his generals drew up the forces with all possible expedition.

Pompey seeing them prepared, was loth to risk a battle in the dark. He thought it sufficient to surround them, so as to prevent their flight; and what inclined him still more to wait for day-light, was the consideration that his troops were much better than the enemy's. However, the oldest of his officers intreated him to proceed immediately to the attack, and at last prevailed. It was not indeed very dark; for the

* Paulus Æmilius had done the same thing long before, in the Macedonian war.

moon, though near her setting, gave light enough to distinguish objects. But it was a great disadvantage to the king's troops, that the moon was so low, and on the backs of the Romans; because she projected their shadows so far before them, that the enemy could form no just estimate of the distances, but thinking them at hand, threw their javelins before they could do the least execution.

The Romans perceiving their mistake, advanced to the charge with all the alarm of voices. The enemy were in such a consternation, that they made not the least stand, and, in their flight, vast numbers were slain. They lost above ten thousand men, and their camp was taken. As for Mithridates, he broke through the Romans with eight hundred horse, in the beginning of the engagement. That corps, however, did not follow him far before they dispersed, and left him with only three of his people; one of which was his concubine Hypsicratia, a woman of such a masculine and daring spirit, that the king used to call her Hypsicrates. She then rode a Persian horse, and was dressed in a man's habit, of the fashion of that nation. She complained not in the least of the length of the march; and beside that fatigue, she waited on the king, and took care of his horse, till they reached the castle of Inora *, where the king's treasure, and his most valuable moveables were deposited. Mithridates took out thence many rich robes, and bestowed them on those who repaired to him after their flight. He furnished each of his friends, too, with a quantity of poison, that none of them, against their will, might come alive into the enemy's hands.

From Inora his design was to go to Tigranes in Armenia. But Tigranes had given up the cause, and set a price of no less than a hundred talents upon his

* It seems from a passage in Strabo (B. xii.) that, instead of *Inora*, we should read, *Sinoria*: for that was one of the many fortresses Mithridates had built between the Greater and the Less Armenia.

head. He therefore changed his route, and having passed the head of the Euphrates, directed his flight through Colchis.

In the mean time, Pompey entered Armenia, upon the invitation of young Tigranes who had revolted from his father, and was gone to meet the Roman general at the river Araxes. This river takes its rise near the source of the Euphrates, but bends its course eastward, and empties itself into the Caspian sea. Pompey and young Tigranes in their march received the homage of the cities through which they passed. As for Tigranes the father, he had been lately defeated by Lucullus; and now, being informed that Pompey was of a mild and humane disposition, he received a Roman garrison into his capital; and taking his friends and relations with him, went to surrender himself. As he rode up to the intrenchments, two of Pompey's *Lictors* came and ordered him to dismount, and enter on foot; assuring him that no man was ever seen on horseback in a Roman camp. Tigranes obeyed, and even took off his sword, and gave it them. As soon as he came before Pompey, he pulled off his diadem, and attempted to lay it at his feet. What was still worse, he was going to prostrate himself, and embrace his knees. But Pompey preventing it, took him by the hand, and placed him on one side of him, and his son on the other. Then addressing himself to the father, he said, "As to what you had lost before, you lost it to Lucullus. It was he who took from you Syria, Phœnicia, Cilicia, Galatia, and Sophene. But what you kept till my time, I will restore you, on condition you pay the Romans a fine of six thousand talents for the injury you have done them. Your son I will make king of Sophene."

Tigranes thought himself so happy in these terms, and in finding that the Romans saluted him king, that in the joy of his heart he promised every private soldier half a *mina*, every centurion ten *minas*, and every tribune a talent. But his son was little pleased

at

at the determination ; and when he was invited to supper, he said, “ He had no need of such honours “ from Pompey ; for he could find another Roman.” Upon this, he was bound, and reserved in chains for the triumph. Not long after, Phraates, king of Parthia, sent to demand the young prince, as his son-in-law, and to propose that the Euphrates should be the boundary between him and the Roman empire. Pompey answered, “ That Tigranes was certainly “ nearer to his father than his father-in-law ; and as “ for the boundary, justice should direct it.”

When he had dispatched this affair, he left Afranius to take care of Armenia, and marched himself to the countries bordering on mount Caucasus, through which he must necessarily pass in search of Mithridates. The Albanians and Iberians are the principal nations in those parts. The Iberian territories touch upon the Moschian mountains and the kingdom of Pontus ; the Albanians stretch more to the east, and extend to the Caspian sea. The Albanians at first granted Pompey a passage : but as winter overtook him in their dominions, they took the opportunity of the *Saturnalia*, which the Romans observe religiously, to assemble their forces to the number of forty thousand men, with a resolution to attack them ; and for that purpose passed the Cynus*. The Cynus rises in the Iberian mountains, and being joined in its course by the Araxes from Armenia, it discharges itself, by twelve mouths, into the Caspian sea. Some say, the Araxes does not run into it†, but has a separate channel, and empties itself near it into the same sea.

Pompey suffered them to pass the river, though it was in his power to have hindered it ; and when they were all got over, he attacked and routed them, and killed great numbers on the spot. Their king

* Strabo and Pliny call this river *Cyrus*, and so Plutarch probably wrote it.

† This is Strabo's opinion, in which he is followed by the modern geographers.

sent ambassadors to beg for mercy; upon which, Pompey forgave him the violence he had offered, and entered into alliance with him. This done, he marched against the Iberians, who were equally numerous and more warlike, and who were very desirous to signalize their zeal for Mithridates, by repulsing Pompey. The Iberians were never subject to the Medes or Persians: they escaped even the Macedonian yoke, because Alexander was obliged to leave Hyrcania in haste. Pompey, however, defeated this people, too, in a great battle, in which he killed no less than nine thousand, and took above ten thousand prisoners.

After this, he threw himself into Colchis; and Servilius came and joined him at the mouth of the Phasis, with the fleet appointed to guard the Euxine sea. The pursuit of Mithridates was attended with great difficulties; for he had concealed himself among the nations settled about the Bosphorus and the Palus Mæotis. Besides, news was brought Pompey that the Albanians had revolted, and taken up arms again. The desire of revenge determined him to march back, and chastise them. But it was with infinite trouble and danger that he passed the Cynus again, the barbarians having fenced it on their side with pallisades all along the banks. And when he was over, he had a large country to traverse, which afforded no water. This last difficulty he provided against, by filling ten thousand bottles; and pursuing his march, he found the enemy drawn up on the banks of the river Abas*, to the number of sixty thousand foot and twelve thousand horse, but many of them ill armed, and provided with nothing of the defensive kind but skins of beasts.

They were commanded by the king's brother, named Cofis; who at the beginning of the battle, singled out Pompey, and rushing in upon him, struck his javelin into the joints of his breast-plate. Pompey in return run him through with his spear, and laid him dead

* This river takes its rise in the mountains of Albania, and falls into the Caspian sea. Ptolemy calls it *Albanus*.

in the spot. It is said that the Amazons came to the assistance of the barbarians from the mountains near the river Thermodon, and fought in this battle. The Romans, among the plunder of the field, did indeed meet with bucklers in the form of a half-moon, and such buskins as the Amazons wore; but there was not the body of a woman found among the dead. They inhabit that part of Mount Caucasus which stretches towards the Hyrcanian sea, and are not next neighbours to the Albanians*; for Gelæ and Leges lie between; but they meet that people, and spend two months with them every year on the banks of the Thermodon: after which they retire to their own country, where they live without the company of men.

After this action, Pompey designed to make his way to the Caspian sea, and march by its coasts into Hyrcania†; but he found the number of venomous serpents so troublesome, that he was forced to return, when three days' march more would have carried him as far as he proposed †. The next route he took was into Armenia the Less, where he gave audience to ambassadors from the kings of the Elymæans and the Medes §, and dismissed them with letters expressive of his regard. Mean time the king of Parthia had entered Gordyene, and was doing infinite damage to the subjects of Tigranes. Against him Pompey sent

* The Albanian forces, according to Strabo, were numerous, but ill disciplined. Their offensive weapons were darts and arrows, and their defensive armour was made of the skins of beasts.

† —Σελυειν επι την Ἰρκανια καὶ Κασπιαν θάλασσαν—Plutarch mentions the Caspian sea after Hyrcania. But as that sea lies very near Albania, there was no necessity for Pompey to go through Hyrcania itself. Perhaps Plutarch meant the other extremity of the Caspian sea.

‡ Τριῶν ὁδῶν ἡμερῶν ἀποσχῶν. The former English translator erroneously renders this, was forced to retreat *after three days' march*.

§ Strabo (Lib. xvi.) places the Elymæans in that part of Assyria which borders upon Media, and mentions three provinces belonging to them, Gabiane, Mefabaticæ, and Corbiane. He adds, that they are powerful enough to refuse submission to the king of Parthia.

Afranius,

Afranius, who put him to the rout, and pursued him as far as the province of Arbelis.

Among all the concubines of Mithridates that were brought before Pompey, he touched not one, but sent them to their parents or husbands; for most of them were either daughters or wives of the great officers and principal persons of the kingdom. But Stratonicæ, who was the first favourite, and had the care of a fort where the best part of the king's treasure was lodged, was the daughter of a poor old musician. She sung one evening to Mithridates at an entertainment, and he was so much pleased with her, that he took her to his bed that night, and sent the old man home in no very good humour, because he had taken his daughter without condescending to speak one kind word to him. But when he waked next morning, he saw tables covered with vessels of gold and silver, a great retinue of eunuchs and pages, who offered him choice of rich robes, and before his gate a horse with such magnificent furniture, as is provided for those who are called the king's friends. All this he thought nothing but an insult and burlesque upon him, and therefore prepared for flight; but the servants stopped him, and assured him, that the king had given him the house of a rich nobleman lately deceased, and that what he saw was only the first fruits, a small earnest, of the fortune he intended him. At last he suffered himself to be persuaded that the scene was not visionary; he put on the purple, and mounted the horse, and as he rode through the city, cried out, "All this is mine." The inhabitants of course, laughed at him; and he told them, "They should not be surpris'd at this behaviour of his; but rather wonder that he did not throw stones at them."

From such a glorious source sprung Stratonicæ.

She surrendered to Pompey the castle, and made many magnificent presents; however, he took nothing but what might be an ornament to the solemnities of religion,

gion, and add lustre to his triumph. The rest he desired she would keep for her own enjoyment. In like manner, when the king of Iberia sent him a bedstead, a table, and a throne, all of massy gold, and begged of him to accept them as a mark of his regard, he bade the quæstors apply them to the purposes of the public revenue.

In the castle of Cænon he found the private papers of Mithridates; and he read them with some pleasure, because they discovered that prince's real character. From these memoirs it appeared that he had taken off many persons by poison, among whom were his own son Ariarathes, and Alcæus of Sardis. His pique against the latter took its rise merely from his having better horses for the race than he. There were also interpretations, both of his own dreams and those of his wives; and the lascivious letters which had passed between him and Monime. Theophanes pretends to say, that there was found among those papers a memorial composed by Rutilius *, exhorting Mithridates to massacre all the Romans in Asia. But most people believe this was a malicious invention of Theophanes to blacken Rutilius, whom probably he hated, because he was a perfect contrast to him; or it might be invented by Pompey, whose father was represented in Rutilius's history as one of the worst of men.

From Cænon, Pompey marched to Amifus; where his infatuating ambition put him upon very obnoxious measures. He had censured Lucullus much for disposing of provinces at a time when the war was alive, and for bestowing other considerable gifts and honours, which conquerors used to grant after their wars are absolutely terminated. And yet when Mithridates was master of the Bosphorus, and had assembled a very respectable army again, the same Pom-

* P. Rutilius Rufus was consul in the year of Rome 649. Cicero gives him a great character. He was afterwards banished into Asia, and when Sylla recalled him, he refused to return. He wrote a Roman history in Greek, which Appian made great use of.

pey did the very thing he had censured. As if he had finished the whole, he disposed of governments, and distributed other rewards among his friends. On that occasion many princes and generals, and among them twelve barbarian kings, appeared before him; and to gratify those princes, when he wrote to the king of Parthia, he refused to give him the title of king of kings, by which he was usually addressed.

He was passionately desirous to recover Syria, and passing from thence through Arabia, to penetrate to the Red Sea, that he might go on conquering every way to the ocean which surrounds the world. In Africa he was the first whose conquests extended to the great sea; in Spain he stretched the Roman dominions to the Atlantic; and in his late pursuit of the Albanians, he wanted but little of reaching the Hyrcanian sea. In order, therefore, to take the Red Sea too into the circle of his wars, he began his march; the rather, because he saw it difficult to hunt out Mithridates with a regular force, and that he was much harder to deal with in his flight than in battle. For this reason he said, "He would leave him a stronger enemy than the Romans to cope with, which was famine." In pursuance of this intention, he ordered a number of ships to cruise about, and prevent any vessels from entering the Bosphorus with provisions; and that death should be the punishment of such as were taken in the attempt.

As he was upon his march with the best part of his army, he found the bodies of those Romans, who fell in the unfortunate battle between Triarius* and Mithridates, still uninterred. He gave them an honourable burial; and the omission of it seems to have contributed not a little to the aversion the army had for Lucullus.

* Triarius was defeated by Mithridates three years before Pompey's march into Syria. He had twenty-three tribunes, and a hundred and fifty centurions killed in that battle; and his camp was taken.

Proceeding in the execution of his plan, he subdued the Arabians about mount Amanus, by his lieutenant Afranius, and descended himself into Syria; which he converted into a Roman Province, because it had no lawful king*. He reduced Judæa, and took its king Aristobulus prisoner. He founded some cities and set others free; punishing the tyrants who had enslaved them. But most of his time was spent in administering justice, and in deciding the disputes between cities and princes. Where he could not go himself, he sent his friends. The Armenians and Parthians, for instance, having referred the difference they had about some territory, to his decision, he sent three arbitrators to settle the affair. His reputation as to power was great, and it was equally respectable as to virtue and moderation. This was the thing which palliated most of his faults, and those of his ministers. He knew not how to restrain or punish the offences of those he employed, but he gave so gracious a reception to those who came to complain of them, that they went away not ill satisfied with all they had suffered from their avarice and oppression.

His first favourite was Demetrius, his enfranchised slave; a young man, who, in other respects, did not want understanding, but who made an insolent use of his good fortune. They tell us this story of him. Cato the philosopher, then a young man, but already celebrated for his virtue, and greatness of mind, went to see Antioch, when Pompey was not there. According to custom, he travelled on foot, but his friends accompanied him on horseback. When he approached the city, he saw a great number of people before the gates, all in white, and on the way a troop of young men ranged on one side, and of boys on the other.

* Pompey took the temple of Jerusalem, killing no less than twelve thousand Jews in the action. He entered the temple, contrary to their law, but had the moderation not to touch any of the holy utensils, or the treasures belonging to it. Aristobulus presented him with a golden vine, valued at five hundred talents, which he afterwards consecrated in the temple of Jupiter Capitolinus.

This gave the philosopher pain; for he thought it a compliment intended him, which he did not want. However, he ordered his friends to alight and walk with him. As soon as they were near enough to be spoke with, the master of the ceremonies, with a crown on his head, and a staff of office in his hand, came up, and asked them, "Where they had left Demetrius, and when he might be expected?" Cato's companions laughed, but Cato said only, "Alas! poor city!" and so passed on.

Indeed others might the better endure the insolence of Demetrius, because Pompey bore with it himself. Very often, when Pompey was waiting to receive company, Demetrius seated himself in a disrespectful manner at table with his cap of liberty* pulled over his ears. Before his return to Italy, he had purchased the pleafantest villas about Rome, with magnificent apartments† for entertaining his friends, and some of the most elegant and expensive gardens were known by his name. Yet Pompey himself was satisfied with an indifferent house till his third triumph. Afterwards he built that beautiful and celebrated theatre in Rome, and as an appendage to it, built himself a house much handsomer than the former, but not ostentatiously great; for he who came to be master of it after him, at his first entrance was surprised, and asked, "Where was the room in which Pompey the Great used to sup?" Such is the account we have of these matters.

The king of Arabia Petræa had hitherto considered the Romans in no formidable light, but he was really

* The word *ἰματίον* signifies here the cap of liberty worn by freed-men, not the flaps of a robe, which was all that the other Romans had to cover their heads with. Indeed, generally, they went bare-headed.

† The Latin translator renders *τῶν ἰσθητικῶν τὰ καλλίστα*, *pulcherrima gymnasia*; and Dacier, *les plus beaux parcs pour les exercices de la jeunesse*; but Athenæus (l. x) gives us a more apposite sense of the word *ἰσθητικῶν*, *καλισθῶν τὰ συμπόσια*. Dining rooms might be called *ἰσθητικῶν*, because youth and mirth convey similar ideas.

afraid

afraid of Pompey, and sent letters to acquaint him that he was ready to obey all his commands. Pompey, to try the sincerity of his professions, marched against Petra. Many blamed this expedition, looking upon it as no better than a pretext to be excused pursuing Mithridates, against whom they would have had him turn, as against the ancient enemy of Rome; and an enemy, who, according to all accounts, had so far recovered his strength as to propose marching through Scythia and Pæonia into Italy. On the other hand, Pompey was of opinion that it was much easier to ruin him when at the head of an army, than to take him in his flight, and therefore would not amuse himself with a fruitless pursuit, but rather chose to wait for a new emergency, and, in the mean time, to turn his arms to another quarter.

Fortune soon resolved the doubt. He had advanced near Petra, and encamped for that day, and was taking some exercise on horseback without the trenches, when messengers arrived from Pontus; and it was plain they brought good news, because the points of their spears were crowned with laurel. The soldiers seeing this, gathered about Pompey, who was inclined to finish his exercise before he opened the packet; but they were so earnest in their entreaties, that they prevailed upon him to alight and take it. He entered the camp with it in his hand; and as there was no tribunal ready, and the soldiers were too impatient to raise one of turf, which was the common method, they piled a number of pack-saddles one upon another, upon which Pompey mounted, and gave them this information: "Mithridates is dead. He killed himself upon the revolt of his son Pharnaces. And Pharnaces has seized all that belonged to his father; which he declares he has done for himself and the Romans."

At this news, the army, as might be expected, gave a loose to their joy, which they expressed in sacrifices to the gods, and in reciprocal entertainments, as if ten

thousand of their enemies had been slain in Mithridates. Pompey having thus brought the campaign and the whole war to a conclusion so happy, and so far beyond his hopes, immediately quitted Arabia, traversed the provinces between that and Galatia with great rapidity, and soon arrived at Amisus. There he found many presents from Pharnaces, and several corpses of the royal family, among which was that of Mithridates. The face of that prince could not be easily known, because the embalmers had not taken out the brain, and by the corruption of that, the features were disfigured, yet some that were curious to examine it, distinguished it by the scars. As for Pompey, he would not see the body, but, to propitiate the avenging deity *, sent it to Sinope. However, he looked upon and admired the magnificence of his habit, and the size and beauty of his arms. The scabbard of the sword, which cost four hundred talents, was stolen by one Publius, who sold it to Ariarathes. And Caius, the foster-brother of Mithridates, took the diadem, which was of most exquisite workmanship, and gave it privately to Faustus, the son of Sylla, who had begged it of him. This escaped the knowledge of Pompey, but Pharnaces discovering it afterwards, punished the persons guilty of the theft.

Pompey having thoroughly settled the affairs of Asia, proceeded in his return to Rome with more pomp and solemnity. When he arrived at Mitylene, he declared it a free city, for the sake of Theophanes, who was born there. He was present at the anniversary exercises of the poets, whose sole subject that year was the actions of Pompey. And he was so much pleased with their theatre, that he took a plan of it, with a design to build one like it at Rome, but greater and more noble. When he came to Rhodes he attended the declamations of all the Sophists, and presented each of them with a talent. Posidonius committed the discourse to writing, which he made before him

* Nemesis.

against the position of Hermagoras, another professor of rhetoric, concerning invention in general*. He behaved with equal munificence to the philosophers at Athens, and gave the people fifty talents for the repair of their city.

He hoped to return to Italy the greatest and happiest of men, and that his family would meet his affection with equal ardour. But the deity whose care it is always to mix some portion of evil with the highest and most splendid favours of fortune, had been long preparing him a sad welcome in his house. Mucia†, in his absence, had dishonoured his bed. While he was at a distance, he disregarded the report, but upon his approach to Italy, and a more mature examination into the affair, he sent her a divorce, without assigning his reasons either then or afterwards. The true reason is to be found in Cicero's epistles.

People talked variously at Rome concerning Pompey's intentions. Many disturbed themselves at the thought that he would march with his army immediately to Rome, and make himself sole and absolute master there. Crassus took his children and money and withdrew; whether it was that he had some real apprehensions, or rather that he chose to countenance the calumny, and add force to the sting of envy; the latter seems the more probable. But Pompey had no sooner set foot in Italy, than he called an assembly of

* Hermagoras was for reducing *invention* under two general heads, the reason of the process, and the state of the question; which limitation Cicero disapproved as much as his master Posidonius. Vide CICERO. de Invent. Rhetor. Lib. i.

This Posidonius, who is of Apamea, is not to be confounded with Posidonius of Alexandria, the disciple of Zeno.

† Mucia was sister to Metellus Celer, and to Metellus Nepos. She was debauched by Cæsar: for which reason, when Pompey married Cæsar's daughter, all the world blamed him for turning off a wife by whom he had three children, to espouse the daughter of a man whom he had often, with a sigh, called his Ægisthus. Muci's disloyalty must have been very public, since Cicero, in one of his letters to Atticus, says, the divorce of Mucia meets with general approbation. Lib. i. Ep. 12.

his soldiers, and, after a kind and suitable address, ordered them to disperse in their respective cities, and attend to their own affairs till his triumph, on which occasion they were to repair to him again.

As soon as it was known that his troops were disbanded, an astonishing change appeared in the face of things. The cities seeing Pompey the Great unarmed, and attended by a few friends, as if he was returning only from a common tour, poured out their inhabitants after him, who conducted him to Rome with the sincerest pleasure, and with a much greater force than that which he had dismissed; so that there would have been no need of the army, if he had formed any designs against the state.

As the law did not permit him to enter the city before his triumph, he desired the senate to defer the election of consuls on his account, that he might by his presence support the interest of Piso. But Cato opposed it, and the motion miscarried. Pompey, admiring the liberty and firmness with which Cato maintained the rights and customs of his country, at a time when no other man would appear so openly for them, determined to gain him if possible; and as Cato had two nieces, he offered to marry the one, and asked the other for his son. Cato, however, suspected the bait, and looked upon the proposed alliance as a means intended to corrupt his integrity. He therefore refused it, to the great regret of his wife and sister, who could not but be displeased at his rejecting such advances from Pompey the Great. Meantime Pompey being desirous to get the consulship for Afranius, distributed money for that purpose among the tribes, and the voters went to receive it in Pompey's own gardens. The thing was so public, that Pompey was much censured for making that office venal, which he had obtained by his great actions, and opening a way to the highest honour in the state to those who had money, but wanted merit. Cato then observed to the ladies of his family, that they must all have shared in this disgrace, if they had
had

had accepted Pompey's alliance; upon which they acknowledged he was a better judge than they of honour and propriety.

The triumph was so great, that though it was divided into two days, the time was far from being sufficient for displaying what was prepared to be carried in procession; there remained still enough to adorn another triumph. At the head of the show appeared the titles of the conquered nations; Pontus, Armenia, Cappadocia, Paphlagonia, Media, Colchis, the Iberians, the Albanians, Syria, Cilicia, Mesopotamia, Phœnicia, Palestine, Judæa, Arabia, the pirates subdued both by sea and land. In these countries, it was mentioned that there were not less than a thousand castles, and near nine hundred cities taken; eight hundred galleys taken from the pirates; and thirty-nine desolate cities re-peopled. On the face of the tablets it appeared besides, that whereas the revenues of the Roman empire before these conquests amounted but to fifty millions of *drachmas*, by the new acquisitions they were advanced to eighty-five millions; and that Pompey had brought into the public treasury, in money and in gold and silver vessels, to the value of twenty thousand talents, besides what he had distributed among the soldiers, of whom he that received least had fifteen hundred drachmas to his share. The captives who walked in the procession (not to mention the chiefs of the pirates) were the son of Tigranes, king of Armenia, together with his wife and daughter; Zozima, the wife of Tigranes himself; Aristobulus, king of Judæa; the sister of Mithridates, with her five sons; and some Scythian women. The hostages of the Albanians and Iberians, and of the king of Commagene, also appeared in the train; and as many trophies were exhibited as Pompey had gained victories, either in person or by his lieutenants, the number of which was not small.

But the most honourable circumstance, and what no other Roman could boast, was, that his third triumph was over the third quarter of the world, after
his

his former triumphs had been over the other two. Others before him had been honoured with three triumphs; but his first triumph was over Africa, his second over Europe, and his third over Asia; so that the three seemed to declare him conqueror of the world.

Those who desire to make the parallel between him and Alexander agree in all respects, tell us he was at this time not quite thirty-four, whereas in fact he was entering upon his fortieth year*. Happy had it been for him, if he had ended his days, while he was blest with Alexander's good fortune! The rest of his life, every instance of success brought its proportion of envy, and every miscarriage was irretrievable. For, the authority which he had gained by his merit, he employed for others in a way not very honourable; and his reputation consequently sinking as they grew in strength, he was insensibly ruined by the weight of his own power. As it happens in a siege, every strong work that is taken adds to the besieger's force; so Cæsar, when raised by the influence of Pompey, turned that power which enabled him to trample upon his country, upon Pompey himself. It happened in this manner.

Lucullus, who had been treated so unworthily by Pompey in Asia, upon his return to Rome met with the most honourable reception from the senate; and they gave him still greater marks of their esteem after the arrival of Pompey; endeavouring to awake his ambition, and prevail with him to attempt the lead in the administration. But his spirit and active powers were by this time on the decline; he had given himself up to the pleasures of ease, and the enjoyments of wealth. However, he bore up against Pompey with some vigour at first, and got his acts confirmed, which

* It should be forty-sixth year. Pompey was born in the beginning of the month, of August, in the year of Rome six hundred and forty-seven, and his triumph was in the same month, in the year of Rome six hundred and ninety-two.

his adversary had annulled ; having a majority in the senate, through the assistance of Cato.

Pompey, thus worsted in the senate, had recourse to the tribunes of the people and to the young plebeians. Clodias, the most daring and profligate of them all, received him with open arms, but at the same time subjected him to all the humours of the populace. He made him dangle after him in the *forum* in a manner far beneath his dignity, and insisted upon his supporting every bill that he proposed, and every speech that he made, to flatter and ingratiate himself with the people. And as if the connection with him had been an honour, instead of a disgrace, he demanded still higher wages ; that Pompey should give up Cicero, who had ever been his fast friend, and of the greatest use to him in the administration. And these wages he obtained. For when Cicero came to be in danger, and requested Pompey's assistance, he refused to see him, and, shutting his gates against those that came to intercede for him, went out at the back-door. Cicero, therefore, dreading the issue of the trial, departed privately from Rome.

At this time * Cæsar, returning from his province, undertook an affair, which rendered him very popular at present, and in its consequences gained him power, but proved a great prejudice to Pompey and to the whole commonwealth. He was then soliciting his first consulship, and Crassus and Pompey being at variance, he perceived that if he should join the one, the other would be his enemy of course ; he therefore set himself to reconcile them. A thing which seemed honourable in itself, and calculated for the public good ; but the intention was insidious, though deep laid and covered with the most refined policy. For while the power of the state was divided, it kept it in

* It was not at the time of Cicero's going into exile that Cæsar returned from his province of Spain, which he had governed with the title of prætor, but two years before. Cæsar returned in the year of Rome 693, and Cicero quitted Rome in the year 695.

an *equilibrium*, as the burthen of a ship properly distributed, keeps it from inclining to one side more than another ; but when the power came to be all collected into one part, having nothing to counterbalance it, it oversét and destroyed the commonwealth. Hence it was, that when some were observing that the constitution was ruined by the difference which happened afterwards between Cæsar and Pompey, Cato said, " You are under a great mistake : it was not their late disagreement but their former union and connection which gave the constitution the first and greatest blow."

To this union Cæsar owed his consulship : and he was no sooner appointed, than he began to make his court to the indigent part of the people, by proposing laws for sending out colonies and for the distribution of lands ; by which he descended from the dignity of a consul, and in some sort took upon him the office of a tribune. His colleague Bibulus opposed him, and Cato prepared to support Bibulus in the most strenuous manner : when Cæsar placed Pompey by him upon the tribunal, and asked him, before the whole assembly, " Whether he approved his laws?" and upon his answering in the affirmative, he put this farther question, " Then if any one shall with violence oppose these laws, will you come to the assistance of the people?" Pompey answered, " I will certainly come ; and against those who threaten to take the sword, I will bring both sword and buckler."

Pompey till that day had never said any thing so obnoxious : and his friends could only say, by way of apology, that it was an expression that had escaped him. But it appeared by the subsequent events, that he was then entirely at Cæsar's devotion. For within a few days, to the surprise of all the world, he married Julia, Cæsar's daughter, who had been promised to Cæpio, and was upon the point of being married to him. To appease the resentment of Cæpio, he gave him his own daughter, who had been before contract-
ed

d to Faustus, the son of Sylla ; and Cæsar married Calpurnia, the daughter of Piso.

Pompey then filled the city with soldiers, and carried every thing with open force. Upon Bibulus the consul's making his appearance in the *forum*, together with Lucullus and Cato, the soldiers suddenly fell upon him, and broke his *fascēs*. Nay one of them had the impudence to empty a basket of dung upon the head of Bibulus ; and two tribunes of the people who accompanied him, were wounded. The *forum* thus cleared of all opposition, the law passed for the division of lands. The people caught by this bait, became tame and tractable in all respects, and, without questioning the expediency of any of their measures, silently gave their suffrages to whatever was proposed. The acts of Pompey, which Lucullus had contested, were confirmed ; and the two Gauls on this and the other side the Alps and Illyria, were allotted to Cæsar for five years, with four complete legions. At the same time Piso, Cæsar's father-in-law, and Gaius, one of the most abandoned flatterers of Pompey, were pitched upon for consuls for the ensuing year.

Bibulus finding matters thus carried, shut himself up in his house, and for the eight following months remained inattentive to the functions of his office * ; contenting himself with publishing manifestos full of bitter invectives against Pompey and Cæsar. Cato, on this occasion, as if inspired with a spirit of prophecy, announced in full senate the calamities which would befall the commonwealth and Pompey himself. Lucullus, for his part, gave up all thoughts of state affairs, and betook himself to repose, as if age had disqualified him for the concerns of government. Upon which Pompey observed, " That it was more unreasonable for an old man to give himself up to luxury, than to bear a public employment." Yet, notwithstanding this observation, he soon suffered him-

* Hence the wits of Rome, instead of saying, such a thing happened in the consulship of Cæsar and Bibulus, said, it happened in the consulship of Julius and Cæsar.

self to be effeminated by the love of a young woman; he gave up his time to her, and spent the day with her in his villas and gardens, to the entire neglect of public affairs; insomuch that Clodius the tribune began to despise him, and to engage in the boldest designs against him. For after he had banished Cicero, and sent Cato to Cyprus, under pretence of giving him the command in that island; when Cæsar was gone upon his expedition into Gaul, and the tribune found the people entirely devoted to him, because he flattered their inclinations in all the measures he took, he attempted to annul some of Pompey's ordinances; he took his prisoner Tigranes from him, kept him in his own custody, and impeached some of his friends, in order to try in them the strength of Pompey's interest. At last, when Pompey appeared against one of these prosecutions, Clodius having a crew of profligate and insolent wretches about him, ascended an eminence, and put the following questions, "Who is the licentious lord of Rome? Who is the man that seeks for a man*? Who scratches his head with one finger †?" And his creatures, like a chorus instructed in their part, upon his shaking his gown, answered aloud to every question, *Pompey* †.

These things gave Pompey uneasiness, because it was a new thing to him to be spoken ill of, and he was entirely unexperienced in that sort of war. That which afflicted him most, was his perceiving that the senate were pleased to see him the object of reproach,

* Τις ἀντὶ ζῆλου ἀνδρα. Ζῆλου ἀνδρα was a proverbial expression brought from Athens to Rome. It was taken originally from Æsop's seeking an honest man with a lanthorn at noon-day; and, by degrees, it came to signify the loss of manhood, or the manly character, which loss Pompey was allowed to have sustained in the embraces of Julia.

† *Uno scalpere digito* was likewise a proverbial expression for a Roman *petit maitre*.

‡ Plutarch does not here keep exactly to the order of time. This happened in the year of Rome 697, as appears from Dio (book xxxix.); that is, two years after what he is going to mention concerning that tribune's slave being taken with a sword.

and

and punished for his desertion of Cicero. But when parties ran so high that they came to blows in the *forum*, and several were wounded on both sides, and one of the servants of Clodius was observed to creep in among the crowd, towards Pompey, with a drawn sword in his hand; he was furnished with an excuse for not attending the public assemblies. Besides, he was really afraid to stand the impudence of Clodius, and all the torrent of abuse that might be expected from him, and therefore made his appearance no more during his tribuneship, but consulted in private with his friends how to disarm the anger of the senate, and the valuable part of the citizens. Culleo advised him to repudiate Julia, and to exchange the friendship of Cæsar for that of the senate; but he would not hearken to the proposal. Others proposed that he should recall Cicero, who was not only an avowed enemy to Clodius, but the favourite of the senate; and he agreed to that overture. Accordingly, with a strong body of his retainers, he conducted Cicero's brother into the *forum*, who was to apply to the people in his behalf, and after a scuffle, in which several were wounded, and some slain, he overpowered Clodius, and obtained a decree for the restoration of Cicero. Immediately upon his return, the orator reconciled the senate to Pompey, and by effectually recommending the law which was to entrust him with the care of supplying Rome with corn *, he made Pompey once more master of the Roman empire, both by sea and land. For by this law, the ports, the markets, the disposal of provisions, in a word, the whole business of the merchant and the husbandman, were brought under his jurisdiction.

Clodius, on the other hand, alleged, " That the law
 " was not made on account of the real scarcity of pro-
 " visions, but that an artificial scarcity was caused for

* This law also gave Pompey proconsular authority for five years, both in and out of Italy. *DIO, lib. xxxix.*

" the

“ the fake of procuring the law, and that Pompey, by a new commiffion, might bring his power to life again, which was funk as it were in a *deliquium*.” Others fay, it was the contrivance of the conful Spinther, to procure Pompey a fuperior employment, that he might himfelf be fent to re-eftablifh Ptolemy* in his kingdom.

However, the tribune Canidius brought in a bill, the purport of which was, that Pompey fhould be fent without an army, and only with two *licitors*, to reconcile the Alexandrians to their king. Pompey did not appear difpleafed at the bill; but the fenate threw it out, under the honourable pretence of not hazarding his perfon. Nevertheless, papers were found fattered in the *forum* and before the fenate-houfe, importing that Ptolemy himfelf defired Pompey might be employed to act for him inftead of Spinther. Timagenes pretends, that Ptolemy left Egypt without any neceffity, at the perfuafion of Theophanes, who was defirous to give Pompey new occafions to enrich himfelf and the honour of new commands. But the basenefs of Theophanes does not fo much fupport this ftory, as the difpofition of Pompey difcredits it; for there was nothing fo mean and illiberal in his ambition.

The whole care of providing and importing corn being committed to Pompey, he fent his deputies and agents into various parts, and went in perfon into Sicily, Sardinia, and Africa, where he collected great quantities. When he was upon the point of re-imbarking, a violent wind fprung up, and the mariners made a difficulty of putting to fea; but he was the firft to go on board, and he ordered them to weigh anchor, with thefe decifive words, “ It is neceffary to go; it is not neceffary to live.” His fuccefs was anfwerable to his fpirit and intrepidity. He filled the markets with

* Ptolemy Auletes, the fon of Ptolemy Lathyrus, hated by his fubjects, and forced to fly, applied to the conful Spinther, who was to have the province of Cilicia, to re-eftablifh him in his kingdom. Dio, *ubri fupra*.

corn, and covered the sea with his ships; insomuch that the overplus afforded a supply to foreigners, and from Rome, as from a fountain, plenty flowed over the world.

In the mean time the wars in Gaul lifted Cæsar to the first sphere of greatness. The scene of action was at a great distance from Rome, and he seemed to be wholly engaged with the Belgæ, the Suevi, and the Britons; but his genius all the while was privately at work among the people of Rome, and he was undermining Pompey in his most essential interests. His war with the barbarians was not his principal object. He exercised his army, indeed, in those expeditions, as he would have done his own body, in hunting and other diversions of the field; by which he prepared them for higher conflicts, and rendered them not only formidable but invincible.

The gold and silver, and other rich spoils which he took from the enemy in great abundance, he sent to Rome; and by distributing them freely among the ædiles, prætors, consuls, and their wives, he gained a great party. Consequently when he passed the Alps, and wintered at Lucca, among the crowd of men and women, who hastened to pay their respects to him, there were two hundred senators, Pompey and Crassus of the number: and there were no fewer than a hundred and twenty proconsuls and prætors, whose *fascæ* were to be seen at the gates of Cæsar. He made it his business in general to give them hopes of great things, and his money was at their devotion; but he entered into a treaty with Crassus and Pompey, by which it was agreed that they should apply for the consulship, and that Cæsar should assist them by sending a great number of his soldiers to vote at the election. As soon as they were chosen, they were to share the provinces, and take the command of armies, according to their pleasure, only confirming Cæsar in the possession of what he had, for five years more.

As soon as this treaty got air, the principal persons in Rome were highly offended at it. Marcellinus, then consul, planted himself amidst the people, and asked Pompey and Crassus, "Whether they intended to stand for the consulship." Pompey spoke first, and said, "Perhaps he might, perhaps he might not*." Crassus answered, with more moderation, "He should do what might appear most expedient for the commonwealth." As Marcellinus continued the discourse against Pompey, and seemed to bear hard upon him, Pompey said, "Where is the honour of that man, who has neither gratitude nor respect for him who made him an orator, who rescued him from want, and raised him to affluence?"

Others declined soliciting the consulship, but Lucius Domitius was persuaded and encouraged by Cato not to give it up. "For the dispute," he told him, "was not for the consulship, but in defence of liberty against tyrants." Pompey and his adherents saw the vigour with which Cato acted, and that all the senate was on his side. Consequently they were afraid that, so supported, he might bring over the uncorrupted part of the people. They resolved, therefore, not to suffer Domitius to enter the *forum*, and sent a party of men well-armed, who killed Melitus, the torch-bearer, and put the rest to flight. Cato retired the last, and not till after he had received a wound in his right elbow in defending Domitius.

Thus they obtained the consulship by violence, and the rest of their measures were not conducted with more moderation. For, in the first place, when the people were going to choose Cato prætor, at the instant their suffrages were to be taken, Pompey dismissed the assembly, pretending he had seen an inauspicious

* Dio makes him return an answer more suitable to his character—"It is not on account of the virtuous and the good that I desire any share in the magistracy, but that I may be able to restrain the ill-disposed and the seditious."

flight

flight of birds*. Afterwards the tribes, corrupted with money, declared Antius and Vatinius prætors. Then, in pursuance of their agreement with Cæsar, they put Trebonius, one of the tribunes, on proposing a decree, by which the government of the Gauls was continued for five years more to Cæsar; Syria, and the command against the Parthians, were given to Crassus; and Pompey was to have all Africa, and both the Spains, with four legions, two of which he lent to Cæsar, at his request, for the war in Gaul.

Crassus, upon the expiration of his consulship, repaired to his province. Pompey remaining at Rome, opened his theatre; and, to make the dedication more magnificent, exhibited a variety of gymnastic games, entertainments of music, and battles with wild beasts, in which were killed five hundred lions; but the battle of elephants† afforded the most astonishing spectacle. These things gained him the love and admiration of the public; but he incurred their displeasure again, by leaving his provinces and armies entirely to his friends and lieutenants, and roving about Italy with his wife from one villa to another. Whether it was his passion for her, or hers for him, that kept him so much with her, is uncertain. For the latter has been supposed to be the case, and nothing was more talked of than the fondness of that young woman for her husband, though at that age his person could hardly be any great object of desire. But the charm of his fidelity was the

* This was making religion merely an engine of state, and it often proved a very convenient one for the purposes of ambition. Clodius, though otherwise one of the vilest tribunes that ever existed, was very right in attempting to put a stop to that means of dismissing an assembly. He preferred a bill, that no magistrate should make any observations in the heavens while the people were assembled.

† Dio says, the elephants fought with armed men. There were no less than eighteen of them: and he adds, that some of them seemed to appeal, with piteous cries, to the people; who, in compassion, saved their lives. If we may believe him, an oath had been taken before they left Africa, that no injury should be done them.

cause, together with his conversation, which, notwithstanding his natural gravity, was particularly agreeable to the women, if we may allow the courtesan Flora to be a sufficient evidence. This strong attachment of Julia appeared on occasion of an election of ædiles. The people came to blows, and some were killed so near Pompey, that he was covered with blood, and forced to change his clothes. There was a great crowd and tumult about his door, when his servants went home with the bloody robe; and Julia, who was with child, happening to see it, fainted away, and was with difficulty recovered. However, such was her terror and the agitation of her spirits, that she miscarried. After this, those who complained most of Pompey's connection with Cæsar, could not find fault with his love of Julia. She was pregnant afterwards, and brought him a daughter, but unfortunately died in child-bed; nor did the child long survive her. Pompey was preparing to bury her near a seat of his at Alba, but the people seized the corpse, and interred it in the *Campus Martius*. This they did more out of regard to the young woman, than either to Pompey or Cæsar; yet in the honours they did her remains, their attachment to Cæsar, though at a distance, had a greater share, than any respect for Pompey, who was on the spot.

Immediately after Julia's death, the people of Rome were in great agitation, and there was nothing in their speeches and actions which did not tend to a rupture. The alliance, which rather covered than restrained the ambition of the two great competitors for power, was now no more. To add to the misfortune, news was brought soon after, that Crassus was slain by the Parthians; and in him another great obstacle to a civil war was removed. Out of fear of him, they had both kept some measures with each other. But when fortune had carried off the champion who could take up the conqueror, we may say with the comic poet,

—High

———*High spirit of emprise
Elates each chief; they oil their brawny limbs,
And dip their hands in dust.*———

So little able is Fortune to fill the capacities of the human mind; when such a weight * of power, and extent of command, could not satisfy the ambition of two men. They had heard and read † that the gods had divided the universe into three shares, and each was content with that which fell to his lot, and yet these men could not think the Roman empire sufficient for two of them.

Yet Pompey, in an address to the people at the time, told them, “ He had received every commission “ they had honoured him with, sooner than he expected himself, and laid it down sooner than was “ expected by the world.” And, indeed, the dismissal of his troops always bore witness to the truth of that assertion. But now being persuaded that Cæsar would not disband his army, he endeavoured to fortify himself against him by great employments at home, and this without attempting any other innovation. For he would not appear to distrust him; on the contrary, he rather affected to despise him. However when he saw the great offices of state not disposed of agreeably to his desire, but that the people were influenced, and his adversaries preferred for money, he thought it would best serve his cause to suffer anarchy

* *Weight* is not the literal signification of βαρος, but as near as we could bring it; for, depth of power would not sound well in English. Τεσσέρον βαρος ἡγουμενας is an expression similar to that of St. Paul, Rom. xi. 33. Ὁ ΒΑΘΟΣ πλάτους καὶ σοφίας καὶ γνῶσεως ΘΕΟΥ.

† Plutarch alludes here to a passage in the fifteenth book of the Iliad, where Neptune says to Iris,

“ Allign'd by lot our triple rule we know;
“ Infernal Pluto sways the shades below;
“ O'er the wide clouds, and o'er the starry plain,
“ Ethereal Jove extends his high domain:
“ My court beneath the hoary waves I keep,
“ And hush the roarings of the sacred deep.”

POPE.

to prevail. In consequence of the reigning disorders a dictator was much talked of. Lucilius, one of the tribunes, was the first who ventured to propose it in form to the people, and he exhorted them to choose Pompey dictator. Cato opposed it so effectually, that the tribune was in danger of being deposed. Many of Pompey's friends then stood up in defence of the purity of his intentions, and declared, he neither asked nor wished for the dictatorship. Cato, upon this, paid the highest compliments to Pompey, and entreated him to assist in the support of order and of the constitution. Pompey could not but accede to such a proposal, and Domitius and Messala were elected consuls*.

The same anarchy and confusion afterwards took place again, and numbers began to talk more boldly of setting up a dictator. Cato, now fearing he should be overborne, was of opinion that it was better to give Pompey some office whose authority was limited by law, than to entrust him with absolute power. Bibulus, though Pompey's declared enemy, moved in full senate, that he should be appointed sole consul. "For by that means," said he, "the commonwealth will either recover from her disorder, or if she must serve, will serve a man of the greatest merit." The whole house was surpris'd at the motion; and when Cato rose up, it was expected he would oppose it. A profound silence ensued, and he said, "He should never have been the first to propose such an expedient, but as it was proposed by another, he thought it adviseable to embrace it; for he thought any kind of government better than anarchy, and

* In the year of Rome 700. Such corruption now prevailed among the Romans, that candidates for the curule offices brought their money openly to the place of election, where they distributed it without blushing, among the heads of factions; and those who received it, employed force and violence in favour of the persons who paid them: so that scarce any office was disposed of, but what had been disputed with the sword, and had cost the lives of many citizens.

“knew

“knew no man fitter to rule than Pompey, in a time of so much trouble.” The senate came in to his opinion, and a decree was issued, that Pompey should be appointed sole consul, and that if he should have need of a colleague, he might choose one himself, provided it were not before the expiration of two months. Pompey being declared sole consul by the *interrex* Sulpitius, made his compliments to Cato, acknowledged himself much indebted to his support, and desired his assistance and advice in the cabinet, as to the measures to be pursued in his administration. Cato made answer, “That Pompey was not under the least obligation to him: for what he had said, was not out of regard to him, but to his country. If you apply to me,” continued he, “I shall give you my advice in private; if not, I shall inform you of my sentiments in public.” Such was Cato, and the same on all occasions.

Pompey then went into the city, and married Cornelia, the daughter of Metellus Scipio*. She was not a virgin, but a widow, having been married, when very young, to Publius, the son of Crassus, who was lately killed in the Parthian expedition. This woman had many charms beside her beauty. She was well versed in polite literature; she played upon the lyre, and understood geometry; and she had made considerable improvements by the precepts of philosophy. What is more, she had nothing of that petulance and affectation, which such studies are apt to produce in women of her age. And her father’s family and reputation were unexceptionable.

Many, however, were displeased with this match, on account of the disproportion of years; they thought Cornelia would have been more suitable to his son than to him. Those that were capable of deeper reflection, thought the concerns of the commonwealth neglected,

* The son of Scipio Nasica, but adopted into the family of the Metelli.

which in a distressful case had chosen him for its physician, and confided in him alone. It grieved them to see him crowned with garlands, and offering sacrifice amidst the festivities of marriage, when he ought to have considered his consulship as a public calamity, since it would never have been given him in a manner so contrary to the laws, had his country been in a prosperous situation.

His first step was to bring those to account who gained offices and employments by bribery and corruption, and he made laws by which the proceedings in their trials were to be regulated. In other respects he behaved with great dignity and honour; and restored security, order, and tranquillity, to the courts of judicature, by presiding there in person with a band of soldiers. But when Scipio, his father-in-law, came to be impeached, he sent for the three hundred and sixty judges to his house, and desired their assistance. The accuser seeing Scipio conducted out of the *forum* to his house by the judges themselves, dropped the prosecution. This again exposed Pompey to censure; but he was censured still more, when after having made a law against encomiums on persons accused, he broke it himself, by appearing for Plancus, and attempting to embellish his character. Cato, who happened to be one of the judges, stopped his ears; declaring, "It was not right for him to hear such embellishments, contrary to law." Cato, therefore, was objected to, and set aside before sentence was passed. Plancus, however, was condemned* by the other judges, to the great confusion of Pompey.

A few days after, Hypsæus, a man of consular dignity, being under a criminal prosecution, watched Pompey's going from the bath to supper, and embraced his knees in the most suppliant manner. But Pompey passed with disdain, and all the answer

* Cicero, who managed the impeachment, was much delighted with the success of his eloquence; as appears from his epistle to Marius, lib. vii. ep. 2.

he gave him was, "That his importunities served "only to spoil his supper." This partial and unequal behaviour was justly the object of reproach. But all the rest of his conduct merited praise, and he had the happiness to re-establish good order in the commonwealth. He took his father-in-law for his colleague the remaining five months. His governments were continued to him for four years more, and he was allowed a thousand talents a year for the subsistence and pay of his troops.

Cæsar's friends laid hold on this occasion to represent, that some consideration should be had of him too, and his many great and laborious services for his country. They said, he certainly deserved either another consulship, or to have the term of his commission prolonged; that he might keep the command in the provinces he had conquered, and enjoy undisturbed the honours he had won, and that no successor might rob him of the fruit of his labours, or the glory of his actions. A dispute arising upon the affair, Pompey, as if inclined to fence against the odium to which Cæsar might be exposed by this demand, said, he had letters from Cæsar, in which he declared himself willing to accept a successor, and to give up the command in Gaul; only he thought it reasonable that he should be permitted, though absent, to stand for the consulship*. Cato opposed this with all his force, and insisted, "That Cæsar should lay down his arms, "and return as a private man, if he had any favour "to ask of his country." And as Pompey did not labour the point, but easily acquiesced, it was suspected he had no real friendship for Cæsar. This appeared more clearly, when he sent for the two legions which he had lent him, under pretence of wanting them for the Parthian war. Cæsar, though he well knew for

* There was a law against any absent person's being admitted a candidate: but Pompey had added a clause which empowered the people to accept any man by name from personal attendance.

what

what purpose the legions were demanded, sent them home laden with rich presents.

After this, Pompey had a dangerous illness at Naples, of which, however, he recovered. Praxagoras then advised the Neapolitans to offer sacrifices to the gods, in gratitude for his recovery. The neighbouring cities followed their example; and the humour spreading itself over Italy, there was not a town, or village, which did not solemnize the occasion with festivals. No place could afford room for the crowds that came in from all quarters to meet him; the high-roads, the villages, the ports, were filled with sacrifices and entertainments. Many received him with garlands on their heads and torches in their hands, and, as they conducted him on his way, strewed it with flowers. His returning with such pomp, afforded a glorious spectacle; but it is said to have been one of the principal causes of the civil war. For the joy he conceived on this occasion, added to the high opinion he had of his achievements, intoxicated him so far, that, bidding adieu to the caution and prudence which had put his good fortune and the glory of his actions upon a sure footing, he gave in to the most extravagant presumption, and even contempt of Cæsar; inasmuch, that he declared, "He had no need of arms, or any extraordinary preparations against him, since he could pull him down with much more ease than he had set him up."

Besides, when Appius returned from Gaul with the legions which had been lent to Cæsar, he endeavoured to disparage the actions of that general, and to represent him in a mean light. "Pompey," he said, "knew not his own strength and the influence of his name, if he fought any other defence against Cæsar; upon whom his own forces would turn, as soon as they saw the former; such was their hatred of the one, and their affection for the other."

Pompey was so much elated at this account, and his confidence made him so extremely negligent, that he
laughed

laughed at those who seemed to fear the war. And when they said, that if Cæsar should advance in a hostile manner to Rome, they did not see what forces they had to oppose him, he bade them, with an open and smiling countenance, give themselves no pain: "For, if in Italy," said he, "I do but stamp upon the ground, an army will appear."

Meantime Cæsar was exerting himself greatly. He was now at no great distance from Italy, and not only sent his soldiers to vote in the elections, but, by private pecuniary applications, corrupted many of the magistrates. Paulus the consul was of the number, and he had fifteen hundred talents for changing sides*. So were also Curio, one of the tribunes of the people, for whom he paid off an immense debt, and Mark Antony, who, out of friendship for Curio, had stood engaged with him for the debt.

It is said, that when one of Cæsar's officers, who stood before the senate-house, waiting the issue of the debates, was informed, that they would not give Cæsar a longer term in his command, he laid his hand upon his sword, and said, "But this shall give it."

Indeed, all the actions and preparations of his general tended that way: though Curio's demands in behalf of Cæsar seemed more plausible. He proposed, that either Pompey should likewise be obliged to dismiss his forces, or Cæsar suffered to keep his. If "they are both reduced to a private station," said he, "they will agree upon reasonable terms; or, if each retains his respective power, they will be satisfied. But he who weakens the one, without doing the same by the other, must double that force which he fears will subvert the government †."

* 310,685*l.* sterling. With this money he built the stately *Basilica*, that afterwards bore his name.

† Cornelius Scipio, one of Pompey's friends, remonstrated, that, in the present case, a great difference was to be made between the proconsul of Spain and the proconsul of Gaul, since the term of the former was not expired, whereas that of the latter was.

Here-

Hereupon, Marcellus the consul called Cæsar a public robber, and insisted, that he should be declared an enemy to the state, if he did not lay down his arms. However, Curio, together with Antony and Piso, prevailed that a farther enquiry should be made into the sense of the senate. He first proposed, that such as were of opinion, "That Cæsar should disband his army, and Pompey keep his," should draw to one side of the house, and there appeared a majority for that motion. Then he proposed, that the number of those should be taken, whose sense it was, "That both should lay down their arms, and neither remain in command;" upon which question Pompey had only twenty-two, and Curio all the rest*. Curio, proud of his victory, ran in transports of joy to the assembly of the people, who received him with the loudest plaudits, and crowned him with flowers. Pompey was not present at the debate in the house; for the commander of an army is not allowed to enter the city. But Marcellus rose up, and said, "I will no longer sit to hear the matter canvassed; but, as I see ten legions have already passed the Alps, I will send a man to oppose them in behalf of my country."

Upon this, the city went into mourning, as in a time of public calamity. Marcellus walked through the *forum*, followed by the senate, and when he was in sight of Pompey without the gate, he said, "Pompey, I charge you to assist your country; for which purpose you shall make use of the troops you have, and levy what new ones you please." Lentulus, one of the consuls elect for the next year, said the same. But when Pompey came to make the new levies, some absolutely refused to enlist; others gave in their names in small numbers and with no spirit; and the greatest part cried out, "A peace! A peace!" For Antony, notwithstanding the injunctions of the senate to the

* Dio, on the contrary, affirms that, upon this question, the senate were almost unanimous for Pompey; only two voting for Cæsar. viz. Marcus Cæcilius and Curio.

contrary, had read a letter of Cæsar's to the people, well calculated to gain them. He proposed, that both Pompey and he should resign their governments and dismiss their forces, and then come and give account of their conduct to the people.

Lentulus, who by this time had entered upon his office, would not assemble the senate; for Cicero, who was now returned from his government in Cilicia, endeavoured to bring about a reconciliation. He proposed, that Cæsar should give up Gaul, and disband the greatest part of his army, and keeping only two legions and the province of Illyricum, wait for another consulship. As Pompey received this proposal very ill, Cæsar's friends were persuaded to agree that he should keep only one of those two legions. But Lentulus was against it, and Cato cried out, "That Pompey was committing a second error, in suffering himself to be so imposed upon;" the reconciliation, therefore, did not take effect.

At the same time news was brought, that Cæsar had seized Arminium, a considerable city in Italy, and that he was marching directly towards Rome with all his forces. The last circumstance, indeed, was not true. He advanced with only three hundred horse and five thousand foot; the rest of his forces were on the other side the Alps, and he would not wait for them, choosing rather to put his adversaries in confusion by a sudden and unexpected attack, than to fight them when better prepared. When he came to the river Rubicon, which was the boundary of his province, he stood silent a long time, weighing with himself the greatness of his enterprise. At last, like one who plunges down from the top of a precipice into a gulph of immense depth, he silenced his reason, and shut his eyes against the danger; and crying out, in the Greek language, "The die is cast," he marched over with his army.

Upon the first report of this at Rome, the city was in greater disorder and astonishment than had ever been
been

been known. The senate and the magistrates ran immediately to Pompey. Tullus* asked him what forces he had ready for the war; and as he hesitated in his answer, and only said at last, in a tone of no great assurance, "That he had the two legions lately sent him back by Cæsar, and that out of the new levies he believed he should shortly be able to make up a body of thirty thousand men;" Tullus exclaimed, "O Pompey, you have deceived us;" and gave it as his opinion, that ambassadors should immediately be dispatched to Cæsar. Then one Favonius, a man otherwise of no ill character, but who, by an insolent brutality, affected to imitate the noble freedom of Cato, bade Pompey "stamp upon the ground, and call forth the armies he had promised."

Pompey bore this ill-timed reproach with great mildness; and when Cato put him in mind of the warnings he had given him, as to Cæsar from the first, he said, "Cato, indeed, had spoken more like a prophet, and he had acted more like a friend." Cato then advised that Pompey should not only be appointed general, but invested with a discretionary power; adding, that "those who were the authors of great evils, knew best how to cure them." So saying, he set out for his province of Sicily, and the other great officers departed for theirs.

Almost all Italy was now in motion, and nothing could be more perplexed than the whole face of things. Those who lived out of Rome, fled to it from all quarters, and those who lived in it, abandoned it as fast. These saw, that in such a tempestuous and disorderly state of affairs, the well-disposed part of the city wanted strength, and that the ill-disposed were so refractory that they could not be managed by the magistrates. The terrors of the people could not be removed, and no one would suffer Pompey to lay a plan of action for himself. According to the passion wherewith each was actuated, whether fear, sorrow,

* Lucius Volcatius Tullus.

Or doubt, they endeavoured to inspire him with the same; infomuch that he adopted different measures the same day. He could gain no certain intelligence of the enemy's motions, because every man brought him the report he happened to take up, and was angry if it did not meet with credit.

Pompey, at last, caused it to be declared by an edict in form, that the commonwealth was in danger, and no peace to be expected*. After which, he signified that he should look upon those who remained in the city as the partisans of Cæsar; and then quitted it in the dusk of the evening. The consuls also fled, without offering the sacrifices which their customs required before a war. However, in this great extremity, Pompey could not but be considered as happy in the affections of his countrymen. Though many blamed the war, there was not a man who hated the general. Nay, the number of those who followed him, out of attachment to his person, was greater than that of the adventurers in the cause of liberty.

A few days after, Cæsar arrived at Rome. When he was in possession of the city, he behaved with great moderation in many respects, and composed, in a good measure, the minds of its remaining inhabitants. Only when Metellus, one of the tribunes of the people, forbade him to touch the money in the public treasury, he threatened him with death, adding an expression more terrible than the threat itself, "That it was easier for him to do it than to say it." Metellus being thus frightened off, Cæsar took what sums he wanted, and then went in pursuit of Pompey; hastening to drive him out of Italy, before his forces could arrive from Spain.

* The Latin word, *tumultus*, which Plutarch has rendered *ταραχῆ* is a very incomprehensive one. The Romans did not care to call the commotions which happened among them, or near them, before direct hostilities were commenced, by the name of war; they distinguished them by the name of *tumultus*.

Pompey,

Pompey, who was master of Brundisium, and had a sufficient number of transports, desired the consuls to embark without loss of time, and sent them before him with thirty cohorts to Dyrrachium. At the same time he sent his father-in-law Scipio and his son Cnæus into Syria, to provide ships of war. He had well secured the gates of the city, and planted the lightest of his slingers and archers upon the walls; and having now ordered the Brundisians to keep within doors, he caused a number of trenches to be cut, and sharp stakes to be driven into them, and then covered with earth, in all the streets, except two which led down to the sea. In three days all his other troops were embarked without interruption; and then he suddenly gave the signal to those who guarded the walls; in consequence of which, they ran swiftly down to the harbour, and got on board. Thus having his whole complement, he set sail, and crossed the sea to Dyrrachium.

When Cæsar* came and saw the walls left destitute of defence, he concluded that Pompey had taken to flight, and, in his eagerness to pursue, would certainly have fallen upon the sharp stakes in the trenches, had not the Brundisians informed him of them. He then avoided the streets†, and took a circuit round the town, by which he discovered that all the vessels were set out, except two that had not many soldiers aboard.

This manœuvre of Pompey was commonly reckoned among the greatest acts of generalship. Cæsar, however, could not help wondering, that his adversary, who was in possession of a fortified town, and expected his forces from Spain, and at the same time was master of the sea, should give up Italy in such a manner.

* Cæsar besieged the place nine days, during which he not only invested it on the land side, but undertook to shut up the port by a *staccado* of his own invention. However, before the work could be completed, Pompey made his escape.

† Φυλακίαις τῶν πύλων, καὶ κύκλῳ περιῶν, perhaps means, "That he avoided the principal streets, and came by many windings and turnings to the haven."

Cicero,

Cicero*, too, blamed him, for imitating the conduct of Themistocles, rather than that of Pericles, when the posture of his affairs more resembled the circumstances of the latter. On the other hand, the steps which Cæsar took, shewed he was afraid of having the war drawn out to any length: For having taken Numerius †, a friend of Pompey's, he sent him to Brundisium, with offers of coming to an accommodation upon reasonable terms. But Numerius, instead of returning with an answer, sailed away with Pompey.

Cæsar thus made himself master of all Italy in sixty days, without the least bloodshed, and he would have been glad to have gone immediately in pursuit of Pompey. But as he was in want of shipping, he gave up that design for the present, and marched to Spain, with an intent to gain the forces there.

In the mean time Pompey assembled a great army; and at sea he was altogether invincible. For he had five hundred ships of war, and the number of his lighter vessels was still greater. As for his land-forces, he had seven thousand horse, the flower of Rome and Italy †, all men of family, fortune, and courage. His infantry, though numerous, was a mixture of raw, undisciplined soldiers; he therefore exercised them during his stay at Beroëa, where he was by no means idle, but went through all the exercise of a soldier, as if he had been in the flower of his age. It inspired his troops with new courage, when they saw Pompey the Great, at the age of fifty-eight, going through the whole military discipline, in heavy armour, on foot;

* Ep. to Atticus, vii. 11.

† Cæsar calls him *Cn. Magius*. He was master of Pompey's board of works.

‡ Cæsar, on the contrary, says, that this body of horse was almost entirely composed of strangers. "There were six hundred Galatians, five hundred Cappadocians, as many Thracians, two hundred Macedonians, five hundred Gauls, or Germans, eight hundred raised out of his own estates, or out of his retinue," and so of the rest, whom he particularly mentions, and tells us to what countries they belonged.

and then mounting his horse, drawing his sword with ease when at full speed, and as dextrously sheathing it again. As to the javelin, he threw it not only with great exactness, but with such force, that few of the young men could dart it to a greater distance.

Many kings and princes repaired to his camp, and the number of Roman officers who had commanded armies was so great, that it was sufficient to make up a complete senate. Labienus*, who had been honoured with Cæsar's friendship, and served under him in Gaul, now joined Pompey. Even Brutus, the son of that Brutus who was killed by him not very fairly in the Cisalpine Gaul †; a man of spirit, who had never spoken to Pompey before, because he considered him as the murderer of his father, now ranged himself under his banners, as the defender of the liberties of his country. Cicero, too, though he had written and advised otherwise, was ashamed not to appear in the number of those who hazarded their lives for Rome. Tadius Sextius, though extremely old, and maimed of one leg, repaired, among the rest, to his standard in Macedonia; and though others only laughed at the poor appearance he made, Pompey no sooner cast his eyes upon him, than he rose up, and ran to meet him, considering it as a great proof of the justice of his cause, that, in spite of age and weakness, persons should

* It seemed very strange, says Dio, that Labienus should abandon Cæsar, who had loaded him with honours, and given him the command of all the forces on the other side of the Alps, while he was at Rome. But he gives this reason for it: "Labienus, elated with his immense wealth, and proud of his preferments, forgot himself to such a degree, as to assume a character very unbecoming a person in his circumstances. He was even for putting himself upon an equality with Cæsar, who thereupon grew cool towards him, and treated him with some reserve, which Labienus resented, and went over to Pompey."

† The former English translator renders this *Galatia*. He ought to have remembered that this Brutus was killed by Geminius, in a village near the Po, by Pompey's order, after he had accepted his submission, if not promised him his life. The authors of the Universal History have copied the error.

come and seek danger with him, rather than stay at home in safety.

But after Pompey had assembled his senate, and at the motion of Cato, a decree was made, "That no Roman should be killed, except in battle, nor any city that was subject to the Romans be plundered," Pompey's party gained ground daily. Those who lived at too great a distance, or were too weak to take a share in the war, interested themselves in the cause as much as they were able, and, with words at least, contended for it; looking upon those as enemies both to the gods and men, who did not wish that Pompey might conquer.

Not but that Cæsar made a merciful use of his victories. He had lately made himself master of Pompey's forces in Spain, and though it was not without a battle, he dismissed the officers, and incorporated the troops with his own. After this, he passed the Alps again, and marched through Italy to Brundisium, where he arrived at the time of the winter solstice. There he crossed the sea, and landed at Oricum; from whence he dispatched Vibullius*, one of Pompey's friends, whom he had brought prisoner thither, with proposals of a conference between him and Pompey, "in which they should agree to disband their armies within three days, renew their friendship, confirm it with solemn oaths, and then both return to Italy."

Pompey took this overture for another snare, and therefore drew down in haste to the sea, and secured all the forts and places of strength for land-forces, as well as all the ports and other commodious stations for shipping; so that there was not a wind that blew

* In the printed text it is *Jubius*; but one of the manuscripts gives us *Vibullius*, which is the name he has in Cæsar's *Comm. Lib. iii.* Vibullius Rufus travelled night and day, without allowing himself any rest till he reached Pompey's camp, who had not yet received advice of Cæsar's arrival, but was no sooner informed of the taking of Oricum and Apollonia, than he immediately decamped, and by long marches reached Oricum before Cæsar.

which did not bring him either provisions, or troops, or money. On the other hand, Cæsar was reduced to such straits both by sea and land, that he was under the necessity of seeking a battle. Accordingly, he attacked Pompey's entrenchments, and bade him defiance daily. In most of these attacks and skirmishes he had the advantage; but one day was in danger of losing his whole army. Pompey fought with so much valour, that he put Cæsar's whole detachment to flight, after having killed two thousand of them upon the spot; but was either unable or afraid to pursue his blow, and enter the camp with them. Cæsar said to his friends on the occasion, "This day the victory had been the enemy's, had their general known how to conquer*."

Pompey's troops, elated with this success, were in great haste to come to a decisive battle. Nay, Pompey himself seemed to give in to their opinions by writing to the kings, the generals, and cities in his interest, in the style of a conqueror. Yet all this while he dreaded the issue of a general action; believing it much better, by length of time, by famine and fatigue, to tire out men who had been ever invincible in arms, and long accustomed to conquer when they fought together. Besides, he knew the infirmities of age had made them unfit for the other operations of war, for long marches and counter-marches, for digging trenches and building forts, and that, therefore, they wished for nothing so much as a battle. Pompey,

* Yet it may be observed, in defence of Pompey, that as his troops were raw and unexperienced, it was not amiss to try them in many skirmishes and light attacks, before he hazarded a general engagement with an army of veterans. Many instances of that kind might be produced, from the conduct of the ablest generals. And we are persuaded, that if Pompey had attempted to force Cæsar's camp, he would have been repulsed with loss and disgrace. Pompey's greatest error seems to have been, his suffering himself to be brought to an action at last, by the importunity of his officers and soldiers, against his better judgment.

with

with all these arguments, found it no easy matter to keep his army quiet.

After this last engagement, Cæsar was in such want of provisions, that he was forced to decamp, and he took his way through Athamania to Theffaly. This added so much to the high opinion Pompey's soldiers had of themselves, that it was impossible to keep it within bounds. They cried out with one voice, "Cæsar is fled." Some called upon the general to pursue: some to pass over to Italy. Others sent their friends and servants to Rome, to engage houses near the *forum*, for the convenience of soliciting the great offices of state. And not a few went of their own accord to Cornelia, who had been privately lodged in Lesbos, to congratulate her upon the conclusion of the war.

On this great emergency, a council of war was called; in which Afranius gave it as his opinion, "That they ought immediately to regain Italy, for that was the great prize aimed at in the war. Sicily, Sardinia, Corfica, Spain, and both the Gauls, would soon submit to those who were masters there. What should affect Pompey still more was, that his native country just by, stretched out her hands to him as a suppliant; and it could not be consistent with his honour to let her remain under such indignities, and in so disgraceful a vassalage to the slaves and flatterers of tyrants." But Pompey thought it would neither be for his reputation, to fly a second time from Cæsar, and again to be pursued, when fortune put it in his power to pursue; nor agreeable to the laws of piety, to leave his father-in-law Scipio, and many other persons of consular dignity in Greece and Theffaly, a prey to Cæsar, with all their treasures and forces. As for Rome, he should take the best care of her, by fixing the scene of war at the greatest distance from her; that without feeling its calamities, or perhaps hearing the report of them, she might quietly wait for the conqueror.

This opinion prevailing, he set out in pursuit of Cæsar, with a resolution not to hazard a battle, but to keep near enough to hold him, as it were, besieged, and to wear him out with famine. This he thought the best method he could take; and a report was, moreover, brought him, of its being whispered among the equestrian order, "That as soon as they had taken off Cæsar, they could do nothing better than take off him too." Some say, this was the reason why he did not employ Cato in any service of importance, but, upon his march against Cæsar, sent him to the sea-coast to take care of the baggage, lest, after he had destroyed Cæsar, Cato should soon oblige him to lay down his commission.

While he thus softly followed the enemy's steps, a complaint was raised against him, and urged with much clamour, that he was not exercising his generalship upon Cæsar, but upon the senate and the whole commonwealth, in order that he might for ever keep the command in his hands, and have those for his guards and servants, who had a right to govern the world. Domitius Ænobarbus, to increase the *odium*, always called him Agamemnon, or king of kings. Favonius piqued him no less with a jest, than others by their unseasonable severity; he went about crying, "My friends, we shall eat no figs in Tusculum this year." And Lucius Afranius, who lost the forces in Spain, and was accused of having betrayed them into the enemy's hands, now when he saw Pompey avoid a battle, said, "He was surpris'd that his accusers should make any difficulty of fighting that merchant (as they called him), who traffick'd for provinces."

These, and many other like sallies of ridicule, had such an effect upon Pompey, who was ambitious of being spoken well of by all the world, and had too much deference for the opinions of his friends, that he gave up his own better judgment, to follow them in the career of their false hopes and prospects. A thing which would have been unpardonable in the pilot or
 master

master of a ship, much more in the commander in chief of so many nations, and such numerous armies. He had often commended the physician who gives no indulgence to the whimsical longings of his patients, and yet he humoured the sickly cravings of his army, and was afraid to give them pain, though necessary for the preservation of their life and being. For who can say that army was in a sound and healthy state, when some of the officers went about the camp canvassing for the offices of consul and prætor; and others, namely, Spinther, Domitius, and Scipio, were engaged in quarrels and cabals about Cæsar's high-priesthood, as if their adversary had been only a Tigranes, a king of Armenia, or a prince of the Nabathæans; and not that Cæsar and that army, who had stormed a thousand cities, subdued above three hundred nations, gained numberless battles of the Germans and Gauls, taken a million of prisoners, and killed as many fairly in the field. Notwithstanding all this, they continued loud and tumultuous in their demand of a battle, and when they came to the plains of Pharfalia, forced Pompey to call a council of war. Labienus, who had the command of the cavalry, rose up first, and took an oath, "That he would not re-
" turn from the battle, till he had put the enemy to
" flight." All the other officers swore the same.

The night following, Pompey had this dream*. He thought "he entered his own theatre, and was received with loud plaudits; after which, he adorned "the temple of Venus *the Victorious* with many spoils." This vision, on one side, encouraged him, and on another alarmed him. He was afraid that Cæsar, who was a descendant of Venus, would be aggrandized at his

* At nox felicitis Magno pars ultima vitæ
Sollicitos vana decepit imagine somnos.
Nam Pompeiani visus sibi sedē theatri
Innumeram effigiem Romanæ cernere Plebis,
Attollique suum lætisiā ad sidera nomen
Vocibus, & plausu cuneos certare sonantes.

LUCAN, Lib. vii.

expeuce. Besides, a panic fear ran through the camp*, the noise of which awaked him. And about the morning watch, over Cæsar's camp, where every thing was perfectly quiet, there suddenly appeared a great light, from which a stream of fire issued in the form of a torch, and fell upon that of Pompey. Cæsar himself says, he saw it as he was going his rounds.

Cæsar was preparing, at break of day, to march to Scotusa†; his soldiers were striking their tents, and the servants, and beasts of burden, were already in motion, when his scouts brought intelligence, that they had seen arms handed about in the enemy's camp, and perceived a noise and bustle, which indicated an approaching battle. After these, others came and assured him, that the first ranks were drawn up.

Upon this Cæsar said, "The long-wished day is come, on which we shall fight with men, and not with want and famine." Then he immediately ordered the red mantle to be put up before his pavilion, which, among the Romans, is the signal of a battle. The soldiers no sooner beheld it, than they left their tents as they were, and ran to arms with loud shouts, and every expression of joy. And when the officers began to put them in order of battle, each man fell into his proper rank as quietly, and with as much skill and ease, as a *chorus* in a tragedy.

Pompey ‡ placed himself in his right wing over against Antony, and his father-in-law, Scipio, in the centre,

* *Panic fears* were so called, from the terror which the god *Pan* is said to have struck the enemies of the Greeks with, at the battle of Marathon.

† *Προ σκοτους* in the printed text is evidently a corruption. An anonymous manuscript gives us *προς Σκοθουας*. Scotusa was a city of Thessaly. Cæsar was persuaded that Pompey would not come to action, and therefore chose to march in search of provisions as well as to harass the enemy with frequent movements, and to watch his opportunity, in some of those movements, to fall upon them.

‡ It is somewhat surprising that the account which Cæsar himself has left us of this memorable battle, should meet with contradiction. Yet so it is; Plutarch differs widely from him, and

centre, opposite Domitius Calvinus. His left wing was commanded by Lucius Domitius, and supported by the cavalry; for they were almost all ranged on that side, in order to break in upon Cæsar, and cut off the tenth legion, which was accounted the bravest in his army, and in which he used to fight in person. Cæsar seeing the enemy's left wing so well guarded with horse, and fearing the excellence of their armour, sent for a detachment of six cohorts from the body of reserve, and placed them behind the tenth legion, with orders not to stir before the attack, lest they should be discovered by the enemy; but when the enemy's cavalry had charged, to make up through the foremost ranks, and then not to discharge their javelins at a distance, as brave men generally do in their eagerness to come to sword in hand, but to reserve them till they came to close fighting, and push them upwards into the eyes and faces of the enemy. "For those fair young dancers," said he, "will never

and Appian from both. According to Cæsar (Bell. Civil. lib. iii.) Pompey was on the left with the two legions, which Cæsar had returned him at the beginning of the war. Scipio, Pompey's father-in-law, was in the centre, with the legions he had brought from Syria, and the reinforcements sent by several kings and states of Asia. The Cilician legion, and some cohorts which had served in Spain, were in the right, under the command of Afranius. As Pompey's right wing was covered by the Enipeus, he strengthened the left with the seven thousand horse, as well as with the slingers and archers. The whole army, consisting of forty-five thousand men, was drawn up in three lines, with very little spaces between them. In conformity to this disposition, Cæsar's army was drawn up in the following order: the tenth legion, which had on all occasions signalized itself above the rest, was placed in the right wing, and the ninth in the left: but as the latter had been considerably weakened in the action at Dyrrachium, the eighth legion was posted so near it, as to be able to support and reinforce it upon occasion. The rest of Cæsar's forces filled up the spaces between the two wings. Mark Antony commanded the left wing, Sylla the right, Cneus Domitius Calvinus the main body. As for Cæsar, he posted himself on the right over against Pompey, that he might have him always in sight.

“ stand

“ stand the steel aimed at their eyes, but will fly to
 “ save their handsome faces.”

While Cæsar was thus employed, Pompey took a view on horseback of the order of both armies; and finding that the enemy kept their ranks with the utmost exactness, and quietly waited for the signal of battle, while his own men, for want of experience, were fluctuating and unsteady, he was afraid they would be broken upon the first onset. He therefore commanded the vanguard to stand firm in their ranks*, and in that close order to receive the enemy's charge. Cæsar condemned this measure, as not only tending to lessen the vigour of the blows, which is always greatest in the assailants, but also to damp the fire and spirit of the men; whereas those who advance with impetuosity, and animate each other with shouts, are filled with an enthusiastic valour, and superior ardour.

Cæsar's army consisted of twenty-two thousand men, and Pompey's was something more than twice that number. When the signal was given on both sides, and the trumpets sounded a charge, each common man attended only to his own concern. But some of the principal Romans and Greeks, who only stood and looked on, when the dreadful moment of action approached, could not help considering to what the avarice and ambition of two men had brought the Roman empire. The same arms on both sides, the troops marshalled in the same manner, the same standards; in short, the strength and flower of one and the same city turned upon itself! What could be a stronger proof of the blindness and infatuation of human nature, when carried away by its passions? Had they been willing to enjoy the fruits of their labours in peace and tranquillity, the greatest and best part of the whole world was their own. Or, if they must

* Vide CÆs. ubi supra.

This, however, must be said in excuse for Pompey, that generals of great fame and experience have sometimes done as he did.

have

ve indulged their thirst of victories and triumphs, : Parthians and Germans were yet to be subdued ; ythia and India yet remained ; together with a very usible colour for their lust of new acquisitions, the stence of civilizing barbarians. And what Scythian rse, what Parthian arrows, what Indian treasures, uld have resisted seventy thousand Romans, led on

Pompey and Cæsar, with whose names these na- ns had long been acquainted? Into such a variety wild and savage countries had these two generals rried their victorious arms. Whereas now they od threatening each other with destruction ; not ring even their own glory, though to it they sacri- ed their country, but prepared, one of them, to le the reputation of being invincible, which hither- they had both maintained. So that the alliance icht they had contracted by Pompey's marriage to lia, was from the first only an artful expedient ; d her charms were to form a self-interested com- ct, instead of being the pledge of a sincere friend- ip.

The plain of Pharsalia was now covered with men, d horses, and arms ; and the signal of battle being ven on both sides, the first on Cæsar's side who ad- nced to the charge, was Caius Crastinus*, who mmanded a corps of a hundred and twenty men, d was determined to make good his promise to his ernal. He was the first man Cæsar saw when he ent out of the trenches in the morning ; and upon æsar's asking him what he thought of the battle, he retched out his hand, and answered in a cheerful ne, " You will gain a glorious victory, and I shall ave your praise this day, either alive or dead." n pursuance of this promise, he advanced the fore- ost, and many following to support him, he charged nto the midst of the enemy. They soon took to their vords, and numbers were slain ; but as Crastinus was

* So Cæsar calls him. His name in Plutarch is *Craſſianus*, in ppian *Craſſinus*.

making his way forward, and cutting down all before him, one of Pompey's men stood to receive him, and pushed his sword in at his mouth with such force that it went through the nape of his neck. Crastinus thus killed, the fight was maintained with equal advantage on both sides.

Pompey did not immediately bring on his right wing, but often directed his eyes to the left, and lost time in waiting to see what execution his cavalry would do there. Meanwhile they had extended their squadrons to surround Cæsar, and prepared to drive the few horse he had placed in front, back upon the foot. At that instant Cæsar gave the signal: Upon which, his cavalry retreated a little*; and the six cohorts, which consisted of three thousand men, and had been placed behind the tenth legion, advanced to surround Pompey's cavalry; and coming close up to them, raised the points of their javelins, as they had been taught, and aimed them at the face †. Their adversaries, who were not experienced in any kind of fighting, and had not the least previous idea of this, could not parry or endure the blows upon their faces, but turned their backs, or covered their eyes with their hands, and soon fled with great dishonour. Cæsar's men took no care to pursue them, but turned their force upon the enemy's infantry, particularly upon that wing, which, now stripped of its horse, lay open to the attack on all sides. The six cohorts, therefore, took them in flank, while the tenth legion charged them in front; and they, who had hoped to surround the enemy, and now, instead of that, saw themselves sur-

* Αἱ δὲ ἐπιταγμέναι σκίραι πρὸς τῆν κυκλωσιν ἐπιδραμῶσαι, τρισχίλιαι αἰῶρες, ὑπαντίαζουσι τῆν πολέμῳ.

Amiot and Dacier translate this passage as we have done; though, with a comma after *κυκλωσιν*; it may possibly bear the sense which the Latin and the former English translator have given it; namely, that they were placed there to prevent the tenth legion from being surrounded, but that does not appear to be a natural construction.

† *Miles, feri faciem.*

rounded,

rounded, made but a short resistance, and then took to precipitate flight.

By the great dust that was raised, Pompey conjectured the fate of his cavalry; and it is hard to say what passed in his mind at that moment. He appeared like a man moon-struck and distracted; and without considering that he was Pompey the Great, or speaking to any one, he quitted the ranks and retired step by step towards his camp. A scene which cannot be better painted than in these verses of Homer* :

*But partial Jove espousing Hector's part,
Shot Heav'n-bred horror through the Grecian's heart;
Confus'd, unner'd in Hector's presence grown,
Amaz'd he stood with terrors not his own.
O'er his broad back his moony shield he threw,
And glaring round by tardy steps withdrew.* POPE.

In this condition he entered his tent, where he sat down, and uttered not a word; till at last, upon finding that some of the enemy entered the camp with the fugitives, he said, "What! into my camp too!" After this short exclamation, he rose up, and dressing himself in a manner suitable to his fortune, privately withdrew †. All the other legions fled; and a great slaughter was made in the camp, of the servants and others who had the care of the tents. But Asinius Pollio, who then fought on Cæsar's side, assures us, that

* In the eleventh book of the Iliad, where he is speaking of the flight of Ajax before Hector.

† Cæsar tells us that the cohorts appointed to defend the camp made a vigorous resistance; but being at length overpowered, fled to a neighbouring mountain, where he resolved to invest them. But before he had finished his lines, want of water obliged them to abandon that post and retire towards Larissa. Cæsar pursued the fugitives at the head of four legions (not of the fourth legion, as the authors of the Universal History erroneously say), and after six miles' march came up with them. But they, not daring to engage troops flushed with victory, fled for refuge to a high hill, the foot of which was watered by a little river. Though Cæsar's men were quite spent, and ready to faint with excessive heat and the fatigue of the whole day, yet, by his obliging manner, he

that of the regular troops there were not above six thousand men killed*.

Upon the taking of the camp, there was a spectacle which shewed in strong colours the vanity and folly of Pompey's troops. All the tents were crowned with myrtle; the beds were strewed with flowers; the tables covered with cups, and bowls of wine set out. In short, every thing had the appearance of preparations for feasts and sacrifices rather than for men going out to battle. To such a degree had their vain hopes corrupted them, and with such a senseless confidence they took the field!

When Pompey had got at a little distance from the camp, he quitted his horse. He had very few people about him; and, as he saw he was not pursued, he went softly on, wrapt up in such thoughts as we may suppose a man to have, who had been used for thirty-four years to conquer and carry all before him, and now in his old age first came to know what it was to be defeated and to fly. We may easily conjecture what his thoughts must be, when in one short hour he had lost the glory and the power which had been growing up amidst so many wars and conflicts; and he who was lately guarded with such armies of horse and foot, and such great and powerful fleets, was reduced to so mean and contemptible an equipage, that his enemies, who were in search of him, could not know him.

He passed by Larissa, and came to Tempe, where burning with thirst, he threw himself upon his face, and drank out of the river; after which, he passed through the valley, and went down to the sea-coast. There he spent the remainder of the night in a poor

he prevailed upon them to cut off the conveniency of the water from the enemy by a trench, Hereupon, the unfortunate fugitives came to a capitulation, threw down their arms, and implored the clemency of the conqueror. This they all did except some senators, who, as it was now night, escaped in the dark. Vide *Cæs. Bell.* liv. iii. 80.

* Cæsar says, that in all there were fifteen thousand killed, and twenty-four thousand taken prisoners.

fisher-

fisherman's cabin. Next morning, about break of day, he went on board a small river boat, taking with him such of his company as were freemen. The slaves he dismissed, bidding them go to Cæsar, and fear nothing.

As he was coasting along, he saw a ship of burthen just ready to sail; the master of which was Peticus, a Roman citizen, who, though not acquainted with Pompey, knew him by sight. It happened that this man, the night before, dreamt he saw Pompey come and talk to him, not in the figure he had formerly known him, but in mean and melancholy circumstances. He was giving the passengers an account of his dream, as persons who have a great deal of time upon their hands love to discourse about such matters, when, on a sudden, one of the mariners told him, he saw a little boat rowing up to him from the land, and the crew making signs, by shaking their garments, and stretching out their hands. Upon this, Peticus stood up, and could distinguish Pompey among them, in the same form as he had seen him in his dream. Then beating his head for sorrow, he ordered the seamen to let down the ship's boat, and held out his hand to Pompey to invite him aboard; for by his dress, he perceived his change of fortune. Therefore, without waiting for any farther application, he took him up, and such of his companions as he thought proper, and then hoisted sail. The persons Pompey took with him, were the two Lentuli and Favonius; and a little after, they saw king Deiotarus beckoning to them with great earnestness from the shore, and took him up likewise. The master of the ship provided them the best supper he could, and when it was almost ready, Pompey, for want of a servant, was going to wash himself, but Favonius seeing it, stepped up, and both washed and anointed him. All the time he was on board, he continued to wait upon him in all the offices of a servant, even to the washing of his feet and providing his supper; insomuch, that one who saw the unaffected simplicity

plicity and sincere attachment with which Favonius performed these offices, cried out,

———*The generous mind adds dignity
To every act, and nothing misbecomes it.*

Pompey, in the course of his voyage, sailed by Amphipolis, and from thence steered for Mitylene, to take up Cornelia and his son. As soon as he reached the island, he sent a messenger to the town with news far different from what Cornelia expected. For by the flattering accounts which many officious persons had given her, she understood that the dispute was decided at Dyrrachium, and that nothing but the pursuit of Cæsar remained to be attended to. The messenger finding her possessed with such hopes, had not power to make the usual salutations; but expressing the greatest of Pompey's misfortune by his tears rather than words, only told her, "She must make haste, if she had a mind to see Pompey, with one ship only, and that not his own."

At this news Cornelia threw herself upon the ground, where she lay a long time insensible and speechless. At last, coming to herself, she perceived there was no time to be lost in tears and lamentations, and therefore hastened through the town to the sea. Pompey ran to meet her, and received her to his arms as she was just going to fall. While she hung upon his neck, she thus addressed him: "I see, my dear husband, your present unhappy condition is the effect of my ill fortune and not yours. Alas! how are you reduced to one poor vessel, who, before your marriage with Cornelia, traversed this sea with five hundred gallees? Why did you come to see me, and not rather leave me to my evil destiny, who have loaded you too with such a weight of calamities? How happy had it been for me to have died before I heard that Publius, my first husband, was killed by the Parthians? How wise, had I followed him to the grave, as I once intended? What have I lived
" for

“ for ſince, but to bring miſfortunes upon Pompey
“ the Great * ?”

Such we are aſſured, was the ſpeech of Cornelia ;
and Pompey answered, “ Till this moment, Cornelia,
“ you have experienced nothing but the ſmiles of For-
“ tune ; and it was ſhe who deceived you, becauſe ſhe
“ ſtayed with me longer than ſhe commonly does
“ with her favourites. But, fated as we are, we muſt
“ bear this reverſe, and make another trial of her.
“ For it is no more improbable, that we may emerge
“ from this poor condition, and riſe to great things
“ again, than it was, that we ſhould fall from great
“ things into this poor condition.”

Cornelia then ſent to the city for her moſt valuable
moveables and her ſervants. The people of Mitylene
came to pay their reſpects to Pompey, and to invite
him to their city. But he reſuſed to go, and bade
them ſurrender themſelves to the conqueror without
fear ; “ for Cæſar,” he told them, “ had great cle-
“ mency.” After this, he turned to Cratippus the
philosopher, who was come from the town to ſee him,
and began to complain a little of Providence, and ex-
preſs ſome doubts concerning it. Cratippus made
ſome conceſſions, and, turning the diſcourſe, encour-
aged him to hope for better things ; that he might not
give him pain, by an unſeaſonable oppoſition to his
arguments ; elſe he might have answered his objec-
tions againſt Providence, by ſhewing, that the ſtate,
and indeed the conſtitution, was in ſuch diſorder, that
it was neceſſary it ſhould be changed into a monarchy.

* Cornelia is repreſented by Lucan, too, as imputing the miſ-
fortunes of Pompey to her alliance with him ; and it ſeems, from
one part of her ſpeech on this occaſion, that ſhe ſhould have been
given to Cæſar.

O utinam Thulamos inviſi Cæſaris iſſem.

If there were any thing in this, it might have been a material
cauſe of the quarrel between Cæſar and Pompey, as the latter, by
means of this alliance, muſt have ſtrengthened himſelf with the
Cratippian intereſt : for Cornelia was the relict of Publius Cratippus, the
ſon of Marcus Cratippus.

Or this one question would have silenced him, "How do we know, Pompey, that, if you had conquered, you would have made a better use of your good fortune than Cæsar?" But we must leave the determinations of Heaven to its superior wisdom.

As soon as his wife and his friends were embarked, he set sail, and continued his course, without touching at any port, except for water and provisions, till he came to Attalia, a city of Pamphylia. There he was joined by some Cilician galleys; and beside picking up a number of soldiers, he found in a little time sixty senators about him. When he was informed that his fleet was still entire, and that Cato was gone to Africa with a considerable body of men which he had collected after their flight, he lamented to his friends his great error, in suffering himself to be forced into an engagement at land, and making no use of those forces, in which he was confessedly stronger; nor even taking care to fight near his fleet, that, in case of his meeting with a check at land, he might have been supplied from sea with another army, capable of making head against the enemy. Indeed, we find no greater mistake in Pompey's whole conduct, nor a more remarkable instance of Cæsar's generalship, than in removing the scene of action to such a distance from the naval forces.

However, as it was necessary to undertake something with the small means he had left, he sent to some cities, and failed to others himself, to raise money, and to get a supply of men for his ships. But knowing the extraordinary celerity of the enemy's motions, he was afraid he might be before-hand with him, and seize all that he was preparing. He, therefore, began to think of retiring to some asylum, and proposed the matter in council. They could not think of any province in the Roman empire that would afford a safe retreat; and when they cast their eyes on the foreign kingdoms, Pompey mentioned Parthia, as the most likely to receive and protect them in their present weak condition, and afterwards to send them back with a force

force sufficient to retrieve their affairs. Others were of opinion, it was proper to apply to Africa, and to Juba in particular. But Theophanes of Lesbos observed, it was madness to leave Egypt, which was distant but three days' sail. Besides, Ptolemy*, who was growing towards manhood, had particular obligations to Pompey on his father's account: and should he go then, and put himself in the hands of the Parthians, the most perfidious people in the world? He represented what a wrong measure it would be, if, rather than trust to the clemency of a noble Roman, who was his father-in-law, and be contented with the second place of eminence, he would venture his person with Arsaces †, by whom even Crassus would not be taken alive. He added, that it would be extremely absurd to carry a young woman of the family of Scipio among barbarians, who thought power consisted in the display of insolence and outrage; and where, if she escaped unviolated, it would be believed she did not, after she had been with those who were capable of treating her with indignity. It is said, this last consideration only, prevented his marching to the Euphrates; but it is some doubt with us, whether it was not rather his fate, than his opinion, which directed his steps another way.

When it was determined that they should seek for refuge in Egypt, he set sail from Cyprus with Cornelia, in a Seleucian galley. The rest accompanied him, some in ships of war, and some in merchantmen: and they made a safe voyage. Being informed that Ptolemy was with his army at Pelusium, where he was engaged in war with his sister, he proceeded thither, and sent a messenger before him to notify his arrival, and to intreat the king's protection.

* This was Ptolemy Dionysius, the son of Ptolemy Auletes, who died in the year of Rome 704, which was the year before the battle of Pharsalia. He was now in his fourteenth year.

† From this passage it appears, that Arsaces was the common name of the kings of Parthia. For it was not the proper name of the king then upon the throne, nor of him who was at war with Crassus.

Ptolemy was very young, and Photinus, his prime minister, called a council of his ablest officers; though their advice had no more weight than he was pleased to allow it. He ordered each, however, to give his opinion. But who can, without indignation, consider, that the fate of Pompey the Great was to be determined by Photinus an eunuch, by Theodotus a man of Chios, who was hired to teach the prince rhetoric, and by Achilles an Egyptian? For among the king's chamberlains and tutors, these had the greatest influence over him, and were the persons he most consulted. Pompey lay at anchor at some distance from the place, waiting the determination of this respectable board; while he thought it beneath him to be indebted to Cæsar for his safety. The council were divided in their opinions; some advising the prince to give him an honourable reception, and others to send him an order to depart. But Theodotus, to display his eloquence, insisted that both were wrong. "If you receive him," said he, "you will have Cæsar for your enemy, and Pompey for your master. If you order him off, Pompey may one day revenge the affront, and Cæsar resent your not having put him in his hands: the best method, therefore, is to send for him, and put him to death. By this means you will do Cæsar a favour, and have nothing to fear from Pompey." He added, with a smile, "Dead men do not bite."

This advice being approved of, the execution of it was committed to Achilles. In consequence of which, he took with him Septimius, who had formerly been one of Pompey's officers, and Salvius, who had also acted under him as a centurion, with three or four assistants, and made up to Pompey's ship, where his principal friends and officers had assembled, to see how the affair went on. When they perceived there was nothing magnificent in their reception, nor suitable to the hopes which Theophanes had conceived, but that a few men only, in a fishing-boat, came to wait upon them,

them, such want of respect appeared a suspicious circumstance; and they advised Pompey, while he was out of the reach of missile weapons, to get out to the main sea.

Mean time, the boat approaching, Septimius spoke first, addressing Pompey, in Latin, by the title of *Imperator*. Then Achilles saluted him in Greek, and desired him to come into the boat, because the water was very shallow towards the shore, and a galley must strike upon the sands. At the same time they saw several of the king's ships getting ready, and the shore covered with troops, so that if they would have changed their minds, it was then too late; besides, their distrust would have furnished the assassins with a pretence for their injustice. He, therefore, embraced Cornelia, who lamented his sad exit before it happened; and ordered two centurions, one of his enfranchised slaves, named Philip, and a servant called Scenes, to get into the boat before him. When Achilles had hold of his hand, and he was going to step in himself, he turned to his wife and son, and repeated the verse of Sophocles,

*Seek'st thou a tyrant's door? then farewell freedom!
Tho' free as air before——*

These were the last words he spoke to them.

As there was a considerable distance between the galley and the shore, and he observed that not a man in the boat shewed him the least civility, or even spoke to him, he looked at Septimius, and said, "Methinks, I remember you to have been my fellow soldier;" but he answered only with a nod, without testifying any regard or friendship. A profound silence again taking place, Pompey took out a paper, in which he had written a speech in Greek, that he designed to make to Ptolemy, and amused himself with reading it.

When they approached the shore, Cornelia, with their friends in the galley, watched the event with great anxiety. She was a little encouraged when she

saw a number of the king's great officers coming down to the strand in all appearance to receive her husband and do him honour. But the moment Pompey was taking hold of Philip's hand, to raise himself with more ease, Septimius came behind, and run him through the body; after which Salvius and Achilles also drew their swords. Pompey took his robe in both hands, and covered his face; and without saying or doing the least thing unworthy of him, submitted to his fate; only uttering a groan while they dispatched him with many blows. He was then just fifty-nine years old, for he was killed the day after his birth-day*.

Cornelia, and her friends in the galleys, upon seeing him murdered, gave a shriek that was heard to the shore, and weighed anchor immediately. Their flight was assisted by a brisk gale, as they got out more to sea; so that the Egyptians gave up their design of pursuing them.

The murderers having cut off Pompey's head, threw the body out of the boat naked, and left it exposed to all who were desirous of such a sight. Philip stayed till their curiosity was satisfied, and then washed the body with sea-water, and wrapt it in one of his own garments, because he had nothing else at hand. The next thing was to look out for wood for the funeral pile; and casting his eyes over the shore, he espied the old remains of a fishing-boat; which, though not large, would make a sufficient pile for a poor naked body that was not quite entire.

While he was collecting the pieces of plank and putting them together, an old Roman, who had made some of his first campaigns under Pompey, came up,

* Some divines, in saying that Pompey never prospered after he presumed to enter the sanctuary in the temple at Jerusalem, intimate, that his misfortunes were owing to that profanation; but we forbear, with Plutarch, to comment upon the providential determinations of the Supreme Being. Indeed he fell a sacrifice to as vile a set of people as he had before insulted; for the Jews excepted, there was not upon earth a more despicable race of men than the cowardly, cruel Egyptians.

and

and said to Philip, "Who are you that are preparing the funeral of Pompey the Great?" Philip answered, "I am his freedman." "But you shall not," said the old Roman, "have this honour entirely to yourself. As a work of piety offers itself, let me have a share in it; that I may not absolutely repent my having passed so many years in a foreign country; but, to compensate many misfortunes, may have the consolation of doing some of the last honours* to the greatest general Rome ever produced." In this manner was the funeral of Pompey conducted.

Next day Lucius Lentulus, who knew nothing of what had passed, because he was upon his voyage from Cyprus, arrived upon the Egyptian shore; and as he was coasting along, saw the funeral pile, and Philip, whom he yet did not know, standing by it. Upon which, he said to himself, "Who has finished his days, and is going to leave his remains upon this shore?" adding, after a short pause, with a sigh, "Ah! Pompey the Great! perhaps thou mayst be the man." Lentulus soon after went on shore, and was taken and slain.

Such was the end of Pompey the Great. As for Cæsar, he arrived not long after in Egypt, which he found in great disorder. When they came to present the head, he turned from it, and the person that brought it, as a sight of horror. He received the seal, but it was with tears. The device was a lion holding a sword. The two assassins, Achillas and Photinus, he put to death; and the king, being defeated in battle, perished in the river. Theodotus, the rhetorician, escaped the vengeance of Cæsar, by leaving Egypt; but he wandered about a miserable fugitive, and he was hated wherever he went. At last Marcus Brutus, who killed Cæsar, found the wretch in his province of Asia, and put him to death, after having made him suffer the most exquisite tortures.

* Of touching and wrapping up the body.

The ashes of Pompey were carried to Cornelia, who buried them in his lands near Alba*.

* Pompey has, in all appearance, and in all consideration of his character, had less justice done him by historians, than any other man of his time. His popular humanity, his military and political skill, his prudence (which he sometimes unfortunately gave up), his natural bravery and generosity, his conjugal virtues, which (though sometimes impeached), were both naturally and morally great; his cause, which was certainly, in its original interests, the cause of Rome; all these circumstances intitled him to a more distinguished and more respectable character than any of his historians have thought proper to afford him. One circumstance, indeed, renders the accounts that the writers, who rose after the established monarchy, have given of his opposition perfectly reconcileable to the prejudice which appears against him; or rather to the reluctance which they have shewn to that praise which they seemed to have felt that he deserved: When the commonwealth was no more, and the supporters of its interests had fallen with it, then history itself, not to mention poetry, departed from its proper privilege of impartiality, and even Plutarch made a sacrifice to imperial power.

AGESILAUS *and* POMPEY *compared.*

SUCH is the account we had to give of the lives of these two great men ; and, in drawing up the parallel, we shall previously take a short survey of the difference in their characters.

In the first place, Pompey rose to power, and established his reputation, by just and laudable means ; partly by the strength of his own genius, and partly by his services to Sylla, in freeing Italy from various attempts of despotism. Whereas Agesilaus came to the throne by methods equally immoral and irreligious ; for it was by accusing Leotychidas of bastardy, whom his brother had acknowledged as his legitimate son, and by eluding the oracle relative to a lame king*.

In the next place, Pompey paid all due respect to Sylla during his life, and took care to see his remains honourably interred, notwithstanding the opposition it met with from Lepidus ; and afterwards he gave his daughter to Faustus, the son of Sylla. On the other hand, Agesilaus shook off Lyfander upon a slight pretence, and treated him with great indignity. Yet the services Pompey received from Sylla were not greater than those he had rendered him ; whereas Agesilaus was appointed king of Sparta by Lyfander's means, and afterwards captain-general of Greece.

* See the life of Agesilaus.

In the third place, Pompey's offences against the laws and the constitution, were principally owing to his alliances, to his supporting either Cæsar or Scipio (whose daughter he had married) in their unjust demands. Agefilaus not only gratified the passion of his son, by sparing the life of Sphodrias, whose death ought to have atoned for the injuries he had done the Athenians; but he likewise screened Phœbidas, who was guilty of an egregious infraction of the league with the Thebans; and it was visibly for the sake of his crime that he took him into his protection. In short, whatever troubles Pompey brought upon the Romans, either through ignorance, or a timorous complaisance for his friends, Agefilaus brought as great distresses upon the Spartans, through a spirit of obstinacy and resentment; for such was the spirit that kindled the Bœotian war.

If, when we are mentioning their faults, we may take notice of their fortune, the Romans could have no previous idea of that of Pompey; but the Lacedæmonians were sufficiently forewarned of the danger of a lame reign, and yet Agefilaus would not suffer them to avail themselves of that warning*. Nay, supposing Leotychidas a mere stranger, and as much a bastard as he was; yet the family of Eurytion could easily have supplied Sparta with a king who was neither spurious, nor maimed, had not Lyfander been industrious enough to render the oracle obscure for the sake of Agefilaus.

As to their political talents, there never was a finer measure than that of Agefilaus, when, in the distress of the Spartans how to proceed against the fugitives

* It is true, the latter part of Agefilaus's reign was unfortunate, but the misfortunes were owing to his malice against the Thebans, and to his fighting (contrary to the laws of Lycurgus) the same enemy so frequently, that he taught them to beat him at last.

Nevertheless, the oracle, as we have observed in a former note probably meant the lameness of the kingdom, in having but one king instead of two, and not the lameness of the king.

after the battle of Leuctra, he decreed that the laws should be silent for that day. We have nothing of Pompey's that can possibly be compared to it. On the contrary, he thought himself exempted from observing the laws he had made, and that his transgressing them shewed his friends his superior power: Whereas Agesilaus, when under a necessity of contravening the laws, to save a number of citizens, found out an expedient which saved both the laws and the criminals. I must also reckon among his political virtues, his inimitable behaviour upon the receipt of the *scytale*, which ordered him to leave Asia in the height of his success. For he did not, like Pompey, serve the commonwealth only in affairs which contributed to his own greatness; the good of his country was his great object, and, with a view to that, he renounced such power and so much glory as no man had either before or after him, except Alexander the Great.

If we view them in another light, and consider their military performances; the trophies which Pompey directed were so numerous, the armies he led so powerful, and the pitched battles he won so extraordinary, that I suppose Xenophon himself would not compare the victories of Agesilaus with them; though that historian, on account of his other excellencies, has been indulged in the peculiar privilege of saying what he pleased of his hero.

There was a difference too, I think, in their behaviour to their enemies, in point of equity and moderation. Agesilaus was bent upon enslaving Thebes, and destroying Messene; the former the city from which his family sprung, the latter Sparta's sister colony*; and in the attempt he was near ruining Sparta itself. On the other hand, Pompey, after he had conquered the pirates, bestowed cities on such as were

* For Hercules was born at Thebes; and Messene was a colony of the Heraclidæ as well as Sparta. The Latin and French translations have mistaken the sense of this passage.

willing to change their way of life; and when he might have led Tigranes, king of Armenia, captive at the wheels of his chariot, he rather chose to make him an ally; on which occasion he made use of that memorable expression, "I prefer the glory that will last for ever, to that of a day."

But if the pre-eminence in military virtue is to be decided by such actions and counsels as are most characteristic of the great and wise commander, we shall find that the Lacedæmonian leaves the Roman far behind. In the first place, he never abandoned his city, though it was besieged by seventy thousand men, while he had but a handful of men to oppose them with, and those lately defeated in the battle of Leuctra. But Pompey *, upon Cæsar's advancing with five thousand three hundred men only, and taking one little town in Italy, left Rome in a panic; either meanly yielding to so trifling a force, or failing in his intelligence of their real numbers. In his flight he carried off his own wife and children, but he left those of the other citizens in a defenceless state; when he ought either to have staid and conquered for his country, or to have accepted such conditions as the conqueror might impose, who was both his fellow-citizen and his relation. A little while before, he thought it insupportable to prolong the term of his commission, and to grant him another consulship; and now he suffered him to take possession of the city, and to tell Metellus, "That he considered him, and all the other inhabitants, as his prisoners."

If it is the principal business of a general to know how to bring the enemy to a battle when he is stronger, and how to avoid being compelled to one when he is

* Here is another egregious instance of Plutarch's prejudice against the character of Pompey. It is certain that he left not Rome, till he was well convinced of the impossibility of maintaining it against the arms of Cæsar. For he was not only coming against it with a force much more powerful than is here mentioned; but he had rendered even a siege unnecessary, by a previous distribution of his gold amongst the citizens.

weaker,

AGÉSILAUS *and* POMPEY *compared.* 221

weaker, Agésilas understood that rule perfectly well, and, by observing it, continued always invincible. But Pompey could never take Cæsar at a disadvantage; on the contrary, he suffered Cæsar to take the advantage of him, by being brought to hazard all in an action at land. The consequence of which was, that Cæsar became master of his treasures, his provisions, and the sea itself, when he might have preserved them all, had he known how to avoid a battle.

As for the apology that is made for Pompey in this case, it reflects the greatest dishonour upon a general of his experience. If a young officer had been so much dispirited and disturbed by the tumults and clamours among his troops, as to depart from his better judgment, it would have been pardonable. But for Pompey the Great, whose camp the Romans called their country, and whose tent their senate, while they gave the name of rebels and traitors to those who stayed and acted as prætors and consuls in Rome; for Pompey, who had never been known to serve as a private soldier, but had made all his campaigns with the greatest reputation as general; for such a one to be forced, by the scoffs of Favonius and Domitius, and the fear of being called Agamemnon; to risque the fate of the whole empire, and of liberty, upon the cast of a single die—who can bear it?—If he dreaded only present infamy, he ought to have made a stand at first, and to have fought for the city of Rome; and not, after calling his flight a manœuvre of Themistocles, to look upon the delaying a battle in Thessaly as a dishonour. For the gods had not appointed the fields of Pharfalia as the lists in which he was to contend for the empire of Rome, nor was he summoned by a herald to make his appearance there, or otherwise forfeit the palm to another. There were innumerable plains and cities; nay, his command of the sea left the whole earth to his choice; had he been determined to imitate Maximus, Marius, or Lucullus, or Agésilas himself.

Age-

222 AGESILAUS and POMPEY compared.

Agésilauſ certainly had no leſs tumults to encounter in Sparta, when the Thebans challenged him to come out and fight for his dominions : nor were the calumnies and ſlanders he met with in Egypt from the madneſs of the king leſs grating, when he adviſed that prince to lie ſtill for a time. Yet by purſuing the ſage meaſures he had firſt fixed upon, he not only ſaved the Egyptians in ſpite of themſelves, but kept Sparta from ſinking in the earthquake that threatened her : nay, he erected there the beſt trophy imaginable againſt the Thebans ; for by keeping the Spartans from their ruin, which they were ſo obſtinately bent upon, he put it in their power to conquer afterward. Hence it was that Agésilauſ was praiſed by the perſons whom he had ſaved by violence ; and Pompey, who committed an error in complaiſance to others, was condemned by thoſe who drew him into it. Some ſay, indeed, that he was deceived by his father-in-law Scipio, who, wanting to convert to his own uſe the treaſures he had brought from Aſia, had concealed them for that purpoſe, and haſtened the action under pretence that the ſupplies would ſoon fail. But ſuppoſing that true, a general ſhould not have ſuffered himſelf to be ſo eaſily deceived, nor, in conſequence of being ſo deceived, have hazarded the loſs of all. Such are the principal ſtrokes that mark their military characters.

As to their voyages to Egypt, the one fled thither out of neceſſity ; the other, without any neceſſity or ſufficient cauſe, liſted himſelf in the ſervice of a barbarous prince, to raiſe a fund for carrying on the war with the Greeks. So that if we accuſe the Egyptians for their behaviour to Pompey, the Egyptians blame Agésilauſ as much for his behaviour to them. The one was betrayed by thoſe in whom he put his truſt ; the other was guilty of a breach of truſt, in deſerting thoſe whom he went to ſupport, and going over to their enemies.

ALEXANDER.

ALEXANDER.

WE shall now give the lives of Alexander the Great, and of Cæsar, who overthrew Pompey; and as the quantity of materials is so great, we shall only premise, that we hope for indulgence though we do not give the actions in full detail and with a scrupulous exactness, but rather in a short summary; since we are not writing histories but lives. Nor is it always in the most distinguished achievements that men's virtues or vices may be best discerned; but very often an action of small note, a short saying, or a jest, shall distinguish a person's real character more than the greatest sieges or the most important battles. Therefore, as painters in their portraits labour the likeness in the face, and particularly about the eyes, in which the peculiar turn of mind most appears, and run over the rest with a more careless hand; so we must be permitted to strike off the features of the soul, in order to give a real likeness of these great men, and leave to others the circumstantial detail of their labours and achievements.

It is allowed as certain, that Alexander was a descendant of Hercules by Caranus*, and of Æacus by

* Caranus, the sixteenth in descent from Hercules, made himself master of Macedonia in the year before Christ 794; and Alexander the Great was the twenty-second in descent from Caranus; so that from Hercules to Alexander there were thirty-eight generations. The descent by his mother's side is not so clear, there being many degrees wanting in it. It is sufficient to know, that Olympias was the daughter of Neoptolemus, and sister to Arymbas.

Neoptolemus.

Neoptolemus. His father Philip is said to have been initiated, when very young, along with Olympias, in the mysteries at Samothrace; and having conceived an affection for her, he obtained her in marriage, of her brother Arymbas, to whom he applied, because she was left an orphan. The night before the consummation of the marriage, she dreamed that a thunder-bolt fell upon her belly, which kindled a great fire, and that the flame extended itself far and wide before it disappeared. And some time after the marriage, Philip dreamed that he sealed up the queen's womb with a seal, the impression of which he thought was a lion. Most of the interpreters believed the dream announced some reason to doubt the honour of Olympias, and that Philip ought to look more closely to her conduct. But Aristander of Telmefus said, it only denoted that the queen was pregnant; for a seal is never put upon any thing that is empty; and that the child would prove a boy, of a bold and lion-like courage. A serpent was also seen lying by Olympias as she slept; which is said to have cooled Philip's affections for her more than any thing, insomuch that he seldom repaired to her bed afterwards; whether it was that he feared some enchantment from her, or abstained from her embraces because he thought them taken up by some superior being.

Some, indeed, relate the affair in another manner. They tell us, that the women of this country were of old extremely fond of the ceremonies of Orpheus, and the orgies of Bacchus; and that they were called *Clodones Minallones*, because in many things they imitated the Edonian and Thracian women about mount Hæmus; from whom the Greek word *threscuein* seems to be derived, which signifies the exercise of extravagant and superstitious observances. Olympias being remarkably ambitious of these inspirations, and desirous of giving the enthusiastic solemnities a more strange and horrid appearance, introduced a number of large tame serpents, which often creeping out of he
ivy

ivy and the mystic fans, and entwining about the *Thyruses* and garlands of the women, struck the spectators with terror.

Philip, however, upon this appearance*, sent Chiron of Megalopolis to consult the oracle at Delphi; and we are told, Apollo commanded him to sacrifice to Jupiter Ammon, and to pay his homage principally to that god. It is also said, he lost one of his eyes, which was that he applied to the chink of the door, when he saw the god in his wife's embraces in the form of a serpent. According to Eratosthenes, Olympia, when she conducted Alexander on his way in his first expedition, privately discovered to him the secret of his birth, and exhorted him to behave with a dignity suitable to his divine extraction. Others affirm, that she absolutely rejected it as an impious fiction, and used to say, "Will Alexander never leave embroiling me with Juno?"

Alexander† was born on the sixth of *Hecatombæon* [July], which the Macedonians call *Lous*, the same day that the temple of Diana at Ephesus was burnt; upon which Hegeſias, the Magnesian, has uttered a conceit frigid enough to have extinguished the flames. "It is no wonder," says he, "that the temple of Diana was burnt, when she was at a distance, employed in bringing Alexander into the world." All the *Magi* who were then at Ephesus, looked upon the fire as a sign which betokened a much

* We do not think the word *φασμα* relates to the dream, but to the appearing of the serpent.

† In the first year of the hundred and sixth olympiad, before Christ 354.

‡ Ælian (Var. Hist. l. ii. c. 25.) says expressly, that Alexander was born and died on the sixth day of the month Thargelion. But supposing Plutarch right in placing his birth in the month Hecatombæon, yet not that month, but Bædromion then answered to the Macedonian month Lous; as appears clearly from a letter of Philip's, still preserved in the Orations of Demosthenes (in Orat. de Corona). In after-times, indeed, the month Lous answered to Hecatombæon, which, without doubt, was the cause of Plutarch's mistake.

greater misfortune : they ran about the town, beating their faces, and crying, " That day had brought forth " the great scourge and destroyer of Asia."

Philip had just taken the city of Potidæa*, and three messengers arrived the same day with extraordinary tidings. The first informed him that Parmenio had gained a great battle against the Illyrians ; the second, that his race-horse had won the prize at the olympic games ; and the third, that Olympias was brought to bed of Alexander. His joy on that occasion was great, as might naturally be expected ; and the soothsayers increased it, by assuring him, that his son, who was born in the midst of three victories, must of course prove invincible.

The statues of Alexander that most resembled him, were those of Lyfippus, who alone had his permission to represent him in marble. The turn of his head, which leaned a little to one side, and the quickness of his eye, in which many of his friends and successors most affected to imitate him, were best hit off by that artist. Apelles painted him in the character of Jupiter armed with thunder, but did not succeed as to his complexion. He over-charged the colouring, and made his skin too brown : whereas he was fair, with a tinge of red in his face and upon his breast. We read in the memoirs of Aristoxenus, that a most agreeable scent proceeded from his skin, and that his breath and whole body were so fragrant, that they perfumed his under-garments. The cause of this might possibly be his hot temperament. For, as Theophrastus conjectures, it is the concoction of moisture by heat which produces sweet odours ; and hence it is that those countries which are driest, and most parched with heat, produce spices of the best kind, and in the

* This is another mistake. Potidæa was taken two years before, viz. in the third year of the one hundred and third olympiad ; for which we have again the authority of Demosthenes, who was Philip's contemporary, (in Orat. cont. Leptinem,) as well as of Diodorus Siculus, L. xvi.

greatest quantity ; the sun exhaling from the surface of bodies that moisture which is the instrument of corruption. It seems to have been the same heat of constitution which made Alexander so much inclined to drink, and so subject to passion.

His continence shewed itself at an early period. For, though he was vigorous, or rather violent in his other pursuits, he was not easily moved by the pleasures of the body ; and if he tasted them, it was with great moderation. But there was something superlatively great and sublime in his ambition, far above his years. It was not all sorts of honour that he courted, nor did he seek it in every track, like his father Philip, who was as proud of his eloquence as any sophist could be, and who had the vanity to record his victories in the Olympic chariot-race, in the impression of his coins. Alexander, on the other hand, when he was asked by some of the people about him, " Whether he would not run in the Olympic race?" (for he was swift of foot), answered, " Yes, if I had kings for my antagonists." It appears that he had a perfect aversion to the whole exercise of wrestling*. For though he exhibited many other sorts of games and public diversions, in which he proposed prizes for tragic poets, for musicians who practised upon the flute and lyre, and for rhapsodists too ; though he entertained the people with the hunting of all manner of wild beasts, and with fencing or fighting with the staff, yet he gave no encouragement to boxing, or to the *pancratium* †.

Ambassadors from Persia happened to arrive in the absence of his father Philip, and Alexander receiving them in his stead, gained upon them greatly, by his

* Philopœmen, like him, had an aversion for wrestling, because all the exercises which fit a man to excel in it, make him unfit for war.

† If it be asked how this shews that Alexander did not love wrestling, the answer is, the *Pancratium* was a mixture of boxing and wrestling.

politeness and solid sense. He asked them no childish or trifling question, but enquired the distances of places, and the roads through the upper provinces of Asia; he desired to be informed of the character of their king, in what manner he behaved to his enemies, and in what the strength and power of Persia consisted. The ambassadors were struck with admiration, and looked upon the celebrated shrewdness of Philip as nothing in comparison of the lofty and enterprising genius of his son. Accordingly, whenever news was brought that Philip had taken some strong town, or won some great battle, the young man, instead of appearing delighted with it, used to say to his companions, "My father will go on conquering, till there be nothing extraordinary left for you and me to do." As neither pleasure nor riches, but valour and glory were his great objects, he thought, that in proportion as the dominions he was to receive from his father grew greater, there would be less room for him to distinguish himself. Every new acquisition of territory he considered as a diminution of his scene of action; for he did not desire to inherit a kingdom that would bring him opulence, luxury, and pleasure, but one that would afford him wars, conflicts, and all the exercise of great ambition.

He had a number of tutors and preceptors. Leonidas, a relation of the queen's, and a man of great severity of manners, was at the head of them. He did not like the name of preceptor, though the employment was important and honourable; and, indeed, his dignity and alliance to the royal family gave him the title of the prince's governor. He who had both the name and business of preceptor, was Lyfimachus, the Acarnanian; a man who had neither merit nor politeness, nor any thing to recommend him, but his calling himself Phoenix; Alexander, Achilles; and Philip, Pelus. This procured him some attention, and the second place about the prince's person.

When

When Philonicus, the Theffalian, offered the horse named Bucephalus in sale to Philip, at the price of thirteen talents*, the king, with the prince and many others, went into the field to see some trial made of him. The horse appeared extremely vicious and unmanageable, and was so far from suffering himself to be mounted, that he would not bear to be spoken to, but turned fiercely upon all the grooms. Philip was displeased at their bringing him so wild and ungovernable a horse, and bade them take him away. But Alexander, who had observed him well, said, "What a horse are they losing, for want of skill and spirit to manage him!" Philip at first took no notice of this; but upon the prince's often repeating the same expression, and shewing great uneasiness, he said, "Young man, you find fault with your elders, as if you knew more than they, or could manage the horse better." "And I certainly could," answered the prince. "If you should not be able to ride him, what forfeiture will you submit to for your rashness?" "I will pay the price of the horse."

Upon this all the company laughed; but the king and prince agreeing as to the forfeiture, Alexander ran to the horse, and laying hold on the bridle, turned him to the sun; for he had observed, it seems, that the shadow which fell before the horse, and continually moved as he moved, greatly disturbed him. While his fierceness and fury lasted, he kept speaking to him softly and stroking him; after which he gently let fall his mantle, leaped lightly upon his back, and got his seat very safe. Then, without pulling the

* That is, 2518l. 15s. sterling. This will appear a moderate price, compared with what we find in Varro (*de Re Rustic. L. iii. c. 2.*), viz. that Q. Azius, a senator, gave four hundred thousand sesterces for an ass; and still more moderate, when compared with the account of Tavernier, that some horses in Arabia were valued at a hundred thousand crowns. Pliny, in his *Natural History*, says, the price of Bucephalus was sixteen talents. *Sedecem talentis ferunt ex Philonici Pharfalii grege emptum.*

Hist. Nat. lib. viii. cap. 42.

reins too hard, or using either whip or spur, he set him a going. As soon as he perceived his uneasiness abated, and that he wanted only to run, he put him in a full gallop, and pushed him on both with the voice and the spur.

Philip and all his court were in great distress for him at first, and a profound silence took place. But when the prince had turned him and brought him straight back, they all received him with loud acclamations, except his father, who wept for joy, and kissing him, said, "Seek another kingdom, my son, that may be worthy of thy abilities; for Macedonia is too small for thee." Perceiving that he did not easily submit to authority, because he would not be forced to any thing, but that he might be led to his duty by the gentler hand of reason, he took the method of persuasion rather than of command. He saw that his education was a matter of too great importance to be trusted to the ordinary masters in music and the common circle of sciences; and that his genius (to use the expression of Sophocles) required

The rudder's guidance and the curb's restraint.

He therefore sent for Aristotle, the most celebrated and learned of all the philosophers; and the reward he gave him for forming his son was not only honourable, but remarkable for its propriety. He had formerly dismantled the city of Stagira, where that philosopher was born, and now he rebuilt it, and re-established the inhabitants, who had either fled or been reduced to slavery*. He also prepared a lawn, called Mieza, for their studies and literary conversations; where they still shew us Aristotle's stone seats and shady walk.

Alexander gained from him not only moral and political knowledge, but was also instructed in those more secret and profound branches of science, which

* Pliny the elder, and Valerius Maximus, tell us, that Stagira was rebuilt by Alexander, and this when Aristotle was very old.

they

they call *acroamatic* and *epoptic*, and which they did not communicate to every common scholar*. For when Alexander was in Asia, and received information that Aristotle had published some books in which those points were discussed, he wrote him a letter in behalf of philosophy, in which he blamed the course he had taken. The following is a copy of it :

“ Alexander to Aristotle, prosperity. You did wrong
 “ in publishing the *acroamatic* parts of science†. In
 “ what shall we differ from others, if the sublimer
 “ knowledge which we gained from you, be made
 “ common to all the world? For my part, I had ra-
 “ ther excel the bulk of mankind in the superior parts
 “ of learning, than in the extent of power and do-
 “ minion. Farewel.”

Aristotle, in compliment to this ambition of his, and by way of excuse for himself, made answer, that those points were published and not published. In fact, his book of metaphysics is written in such a manner, that no one can learn that branch of science from it, much less teach it to others : it serves only to refresh the memories of those who have been taught by a master.

It appears also to me, that it was by Aristotle rather than any other person, that Alexander was assisted in the study of physic. For he not only loved the theory, but the practice too, as is clear from his epistles, where we find that he prescribed to his friends medicines and a proper *regimen*.

He loved polite learning too, and his natural thirst of knowledge made him a man of extensive reading. The Iliad he thought, as well as called, a portable treasure of military knowledge ; and he had a copy corrected by Aristotle, which is called *the casket copy*‡.

One-

* The scholars in general were instructed only in the *exoteric* doctrines. Vid. AUL. GELL. lib. xx. cap. 5.

† Doctrines taught by private communication, and delivered *vivæ voce*.

‡ He kept it in a rich casket found among the spoils of Darius. A correct copy of this edition, revised by Aristotle, Callisthenes, and

Onesicritus informs us, that he used to lay it under his pillow with his sword. As he could not find many other books in the upper provinces of Asia, he wrote to Harpalus for a supply ; who sent him the works of Philistus, most of the tragedies of Euripides, Sophocles, and Æschylus, and the Dithyrambics of Telestus* and Philoxenus.

Aristotle was the man he admired in his younger years, and, as he said himself, he had no less affection for him than for his own father : “ From one he derived the blessing of life, from the other the blessing of a good life.” But afterwards he looked upon him with an eye of suspicion. He never, indeed, did the philosopher any harm ; but the testimonies of his regard being neither so extraordinary nor so endearing as before, discovered something of a coldness. However, his love of philosophy, which he was either born with, or, at least, conceived at an early period, never quitted his soul ; as appears from the honours he paid Anaxarchus, the fifty talents he sent Zenocrates†, and his attentions to Dandamis and Calunus.

When Philip went upon his expedition against Byzantium, Alexander was only sixteen years of age, yet he was left regent of Macedonia, and keeper of the seal. The Medari ‡ rebelling during his regency, he

Anaxarchus, was published after the death of Alexander. “ Darius (said Alexander) used to keep his ointments in this casket ; but I, who have no time to anoint myself, will convert it to a nobler use.”

* Telestus was a poet of some reputation, and a monument was erected to his memory by Aristratus the Sycionian tyrant, Protogenes was sent for to paint this monument, and not arriving within the limited time, was in danger of the tyrant's displeasure ; but the celerity and excellence of his execution saved him. Philoxenus was his scholar. Philistus was an historian often cited by Plutarch.

† The philosopher took but a small part of this money, and sent the rest back ; telling the giver he had more occasion for it himself, because he had more people to maintain.

‡ We know of no such people as the *Medari* ; but a people called *Madi* there was in Thrace, who, as Livy tells us (l. xxvi.), used to make inroads into Macedonia.

attacked

attacked and overthrew them, took their city, expelled the barbarians, planted there a colony of people collected from various parts, and gave it the name of Alexandropolis. He fought in the battle of Chæronea against the Greeks, and is said to have been the first man that broke the *sacred band* of Thebans. In our times an old oak was shewn near the Cephifus, called *Alexander's Oak* , because his tent had been pitched under it; and a piece of ground at no great distance, in which the Macedonians had buried their dead.

This early display of great talents made Philip very fond of his son, so that it was with pleasure he heard the Macedonians call Alexander *king* , and him only *general* . But the troubles which his new marriage and his amours caused in his family, and the bickerings among the women dividing the whole kingdom into parties, involved him in many quarrels with his son; all which were heightened by Olympias, who, being a woman of a jealous and vindictive temper, inspired Alexander with unfavourable sentiments of his father. The misunderstanding broke out into a flame on the following occasion. Philip fell in love with a young lady named Cleopatra, at an unseasonable time of life, and married her. When they were celebrating the nuptials, her uncle Attalus, intoxicated with liquor, desired the Macedonians to intreat the gods that this marriage of Philip and Cleopatra might produce a lawful heir to the crown. Alexander, provoked at this, said, "What then, dost thou take me for a bastard?" and at the same time threw his cup at his head. Hereupon Philip rose up and drew his sword; but fortunately for them both, his passion and the wine he had drank, made him stumble, and he fell. Alexander taking an insolent advantage of this circumstance, said, "Men of Macedon, see there the man who was preparing to pass from Europe into Asia! he is not able to pass from one table to another without falling." After this insult, he carried off
Olympias,

Olympias, and placed her in Epirus. Illyricum was the country he pitched upon for his own retreat.

In the mean time, Demaratus, who had engagements of hospitality with the royal family of Macedon, and who, on that account, could speak his mind freely, came to pay Philip a visit. After the first civilities, Philip asked him "What sort of agreement subsisted among the Greeks?" Demaratus answered, "There is, doubtless, much propriety in your enquiring after the harmony of Greece, who have filled your own house with so much discord and disorder." This reproof brought Philip to himself, and through the mediation of Demaratus, he prevailed with Alexander to return.

But another event soon disturbed their repose. Pexodorus, the Persian governor in Caria, being desirous to draw Philip into a league offensive and defensive, by means of an alliance between their families, offered his eldest daughter in marriage to Aridæus, the son of Philip, and sent Aristocritus into Macedonia to treat about it. Alexander's friends and his mother now infused notions into him again, though perfectly groundless, that, by so noble a match, and the support consequent upon it, Philip designed the crown for Aridæus.

Alexander, in the uneasiness these suspicions gave him, sent one Theffalus, a player, into Caria, to desire the grandee to pass by Aridæus, who was of spurious birth, and deficient in point of understanding, and to take the lawful heir to the crown into his alliance. Pexodorus was infinitely more pleased with this proposal. But Philip no sooner had intelligence of it, than he went to Alexander's apartment, taking along with him Philotas, the son of Parmenio, one of his most intimate friends and companions, and, in his presence, reproached him with his degeneracy and meanness of spirit, in thinking of being son-in-law to a man of Caria, one of the slaves of a barbarian king.

king. At the same time he wrote to the Corinthians*, insinuating that they should send Theffalus to him in chains. Harpalus and Nearchus, Phrygius and Ptolemy, some of the other companions of the prince, he banished. But Alexander afterwards recalled them, and treated them with great distinction.

Some time after the Carian negotiation, Pausanias being abused by order of Attalus and Cleopatra, and not having justice done him for the outrage, killed Philip who refused that justice. Olympias was thought to have been principally concerned in inciting the young man to that act of revenge; but Alexander did not escape uncensured. It is said that when Pausanias applied to him, after having been so dishonoured, and lamented his misfortune, Alexander, by way of answer, repeated that line in the tragedy of Medea†,

“ *The bridal father, bridegroom, and the bride.*”

It must be acknowledged, however, that he caused diligent search to be made after the persons concerned in the assassination, and took care to have them punished; and he expressed his indignation at Olympias's cruel treatment of Cleopatra in his absence.

He was only twenty years old when he succeeded to the crown, and he found the kingdom torn in pieces by dangerous parties, and implacable animosities. The barbarous nations, even those that bordered upon Macedonia, could not brook subjection, and

* Theffalus, upon his return from Asia, must have retired to Corinth; for the Corinthians had nothing to do in Caria.

† This is the 88th verse of the *Medea* of Euripides. To give the context—Creon says,

Κλων δ' αταλειν, ως απαγγελουσι μοι,
Τοι δοτα, και γαμουτα, και γαμυμενη
Δρασει τι —

The persons meant in the tragedy were Jason, Creusa and Creon; and in Alexander's application of it, Philip is the bridegroom, Cleopatra the bride, and Attalus the father.

Cleopatra, the niece of Attalus, is by Arrian called Eurydice, L. ii. c. 14.

they

they longed for their natural kings. Philip had subdued Greece by his victorious arms, but not having had time to accustom her to the yoke, he had thrown matters into confusion, rather than produced any firm settlement, and he left the whole in a tumultuous state. The young king's Macedonian counsellors, alarmed at the troubles which threatened him, advised him to give up Greece entirely, or at least to make no attempts upon it with the sword; and to recal the wavering barbarians in a mild manner to their duty, by applying healing measures to the beginning of the revolt. Alexander, on the contrary, was of opinion, that the only way to security, and a thorough establishment of his affairs, was to proceed with spirit and magnanimity. For he was persuaded, that if he appeared to abate of his dignity in the least article, he would be universally insulted. He therefore quieted the commotions, and put a stop to the rising wars among the barbarians, by marching with the utmost expedition as far as the Danube, where he fought a great battle with Syrmus, king of the Triballi, and defeated him.

Some time after this, having intelligence that the Thebans had revolted, and that the Athenians had adopted the same sentiments, he resolved to shew them he was no longer a boy, and advanced immediately through the pass of Thermopylæ. "Demosthenes," said he, "called me a boy, while I was in Illyricum, and among the Triballi, and a stripling when in Theffaly; but I will shew him before the walls of Athens that I am a man."

When he made his appearance before Thebes, he was willing to give the inhabitants time to change their sentiments. He only demanded Phœnix and Prothytes, the first promoters of the revolt, and proclaimed an amnesty to all the rest. But the Thebans, in their turn, demanded that he should deliver up to them Philotas and Antipater, and invited by sound of trumpet all men to join them, who chose to assist in recovering the liberty of Greece. Alexander then
gave

gave the reins to the Macedonians, and the war began with great fury. The Thebans who had the combat to maintain against forces vastly superior in number, behaved with a courage and ardour far above their strength. But when the Macedonian garrison fell down from the Cadmea, and charged them in the rear, they were surrounded on all sides, and most of them cut in pieces. The city was taken, plundered, and levelled with the ground.

Alexander expected that the rest of Greece, astonished and intimidated by so dreadful a punishment of the Thebans, would submit in silence. Yet he found a more plausible pretence for his severity; giving out that his late proceedings were intended to gratify his allies, being adopted in pursuance of complaints made against Thebes by the people of Phocis and Platæa. He exempted the priests, all that the Macedonians were bound to by the ties of hospitality, the posterity of Pindar, and such as had opposed the revolt: the rest he sold for slaves, to the number of thirty thousand. There were above six thousand killed in the battle.

The calamities which that wretched city suffered, were various and horrible. A party of Thracians demolished the house of Timoclea, a woman of quality and honour. The soldiers carried off the booty; and the captain, after having violated the lady, asked her whether she had not some gold and silver concealed. She said she had; and taking him alone into the garden, shewed him a well, into which she told him she had thrown every thing of value, when the city was taken. The officer stooped down to examine the well; upon which she pushed him in, and then dispatched him with stones. The Thracians coming up, seized and bound her hands, and carried her before Alexander, who immediately perceived by her look and gait, and the fearless manner in which she followed that savage crew, that she was a woman of quality and superior sentiments. The king demanded who she was?

She

She answered, " I am the sister of Theagenes, who, " in capacity of general, fought Philip for the liberty of Greece, and fell at Chæronea." Alexander, admiring her answer, and the bold action she had performed, commanded her to be set at liberty, and her children with her.

As for the Athenians, he forgave them, though they expressed great concern at the misfortune of Thebes. For, though they were upon the point of celebrating the feast of the great mysteries, they omitted it on account of the mourning that took place, and received such of the Thebans as escaped the general wreck, with all imaginable kindness, into their city. But, whether his fury, like that of a lion, was fatiated with blood, or whether he had a mind to efface a most cruel and barbarous action by an act of clemency, he not only overlooked the complaints he had against them, but desired them to look well to their affairs, because if any thing happened to him, Athens would give law to Greece.

It is said, the calamities he brought upon the Thebans, gave him uneasiness long after, and on that account he treated many others with less rigour. It is certain, he imputed the murder of Clitus, which he committed in his wine, and the Macedonian's dastardly refusal to proceed in the Indian expedition, through which his wars and his glory were left imperfect, to the anger of Bacchus, the avenger of Thebes. And there was not a Theban who survived the fatal overthrow, that was denied any favour he requested of him. Thus much concerning the Theban war.

A general assembly of the Greeks being held at the Isthmus of Corinth, they came to a resolution to send their quotas with Alexander against the Persians, and he was unanimously elected captain-general. Many statesmen and philosophers came to congratulate him on the occasion; and he hoped that Diogenes of Sinope, who then lived at Corinth, would be of the
number.

number. Finding, however, that he made but little account of Alexander, and that he preferred the enjoyment of his leisure in a part of the suburbs called Cranium, he went to see him. Diogenes happened to be lying in the sun; and at the approach of so many people, he raised himself up a little, and fixed his eyes upon Alexander. The king addressed him in an obliging manner, and asked him, "If there was any thing he could serve him in?" "Only stand a little out of my sun-shine," said Diogenes. Alexander, we are told, was struck with such surprize at finding himself so little regarded, and saw something so great in that carelessness, that, while his courtiers were ridiculing the philosopher as a monster, he said, "If I were not Alexander, I should wish to be Diogenes."

He chose to consult the oracle about the event of the war, and for that purpose went to Delphi. He happened to arrive there on one of the days called inauspicious, upon which the law permitted no man to put his question. At first he sent to the prophetess, to intreat her to do her office; but finding she refused to comply, and alleged the law in her excuse, he went himself, and drew her by force into the temple. Then, as if conquered by his violence, she said, "My son, thou art invincible." Alexander hearing this, said, "He wanted no other answer, for he had the very oracle he desired."

When he was on the point of setting out upon his expedition, he had many signs from the divine powers. Among the rest, the statue of Orpheus in Libethra*, which was of cypress wood, was in a profuse sweat for several days. The generality apprehended this to be an ill presage; but Aristander bade them dismiss their fears. "It signified," he said, "that Alexander would perform actions so worthy to

* This Libethra was in the country of the Odrysæ in Thrace. But beside this city or mountain in Thrace there was the *Cave of the Nymphs* of Libethra on Mount Helicon, probably so denominated by Orpheus.

“ be celebrated, that they would cost the poets and
“ musicians much labour and sweat.”

As to the number of his troops, those that put it at the least, say, he carried over thirty thousand foot and five thousand horse; and they who put it at the most, tell us, his army consisted of thirty-four thousand foot and four thousand horse. The money provided for their subsistence and pay, according to Aristobulus, was only seventy talents; Duris says, he had no more than would maintain them one month: but Onesicritus affirms, that he borrowed two hundred talents for that purpose.

However, though his provision was so small, he chose, at his embarkation, to enquire into the circumstances of his friends; and to one he gave a farm, to another a village; to this the revenue of a borough, and to that of a post. When in this manner he had disposed of almost all the estates of the crown, Perdicas asked him, “ What he reserved for himself?” The king answered, “ Hope.” “ Well,” replied Perdicas, “ we who share in your labours, will also take “ part in your hopes.” In consequence of which, he refused the estate allotted him, and some others of the king's friends did the same. As for those who accepted his offers, or applied to him for favours, he served them with equal pleasure; and by these means most of his Macedonian revenues were distributed and gone. Such was the spirit and disposition with which he passed the Hellespont.

As soon as he landed, he went up to Ilium, where he sacrificed to Minerva, and offered libations to the heroes. He also anointed the pillar upon Achilles's tomb with oil, and ran round it, with his friends, naked, according to the custom that obtains; after which he put a crown upon it, declaring, “ He thought “ that hero extremely happy, in having found a “ faithful friend while he lived, and after his death “ an excellent herald to set forth his praise.” As he
went

went about the city to look upon the curiosities, he was asked, whether he chose to see Paris's lyre? "I set but little value," said he, "upon the lyre of Paris; but it would give me pleasure to see that of Achilles, to which he sung the glorious actions of the brave."*

In the mean time, Darius's generals had assembled a great army, and taken post upon the banks of the Granicus; so that Alexander was under a necessity of fighting there, to open the gates of Asia. Many of his officers were apprehensive of the depth of the river; and the rough and uneven banks on the other side; and some thought a proper regard should be paid to a traditionary usage with respect to the time. For the kings of Macedon used never to march out to war in the month *Daisius*. Alexander cured them of this piece of superstition, by ordering that month to be called *the second Artemisius*. And when Parmenio objected to his attempting a passage so late in the day, he said, "The Hellespont would blush, if, after having passed it, he should be afraid of the Granicus." At the same time he threw himself into the stream with thirteen troops of horse: and as he advanced in the face of the enemy's arrows, in spite of the steep banks which were lined with cavalry well armed, and of the rapidity of the river, which often bore him down or covered him with its waves, his motions seemed rather the effects of madness than sound sense. He held on, however, till, by great and surprising efforts, he gained the opposite banks, which the mud made extremely slippery and dangerous. When he was there, he was forced to stand an engagement with the enemy hand to hand, and with great confusion

* This alludes to that passage in the ninth book of the Iliad:

"Amus'd at ease the god-like man they found,
 "Pleas'd with the solemn harp's harmonious sound;
 "With this he sooths his angry soul, and sings
 "Th' immortal deeds of heroes and of kings."

POPE.

on his part, because they attacked his men as fast as they came over, before he had time to form them. For the Persian troops charging with loud shouts, and with horse against horse, made good use of their spears; and, when those were broken, of their swords.

Numbers pressed hard on Alexander, because he was easy to be distinguished both by his buckler, and by his crest, on each side of which was a large and beautiful plume of white feathers. His cuirass was pierced by a javelin at the joint, but he escaped unhurt. After this, Rhœfaces and Spithridates, two officers of great distinction, attacked him at once. He avoided Spithridates with great address, and received Rhœfaces with such a stroke of his spear upon his breast-plate, that it broke in pieces. Then he drew his sword to dispatch him; but his adversary still maintained the combat. Meanwhile, Spithridates came up on one side of him, and raising himself up on his horse, gave him a blow with his battle-axe, which cut off his crest, with one side of the plume. Nay the force of it was such, that the helmet could hardly resist it; it even penetrated to his hair. Spithridates was going to repeat his stroke, when the celebrated Clitus* prevented him, by running him through the body with his spear. At the same time Alexander brought Rhœfaces to the ground with his sword.

While the cavalry were fighting with so much fury, the Macedonian *phalanx* passed the river, and then the infantry likewise engaged. The enemy made no great or long resistance, but soon turned their backs and fled all but the Grecian mercenaries, who making a stand upon an eminence, desired Alexander to give his word of honour that they should be spared. But that prince, influenced rather by his passion than his reason, instead of giving them quarter advanced to attack them, and

* In the original it is Κλειτος ὁ μέγας, Clitus *the Great*. But in Diodorus (502 & 503) we find Κλειτος ὁ μέλας, Clitus *the Black*; and Athenæus (539, C.) mentions Κλειτος ὁ λευκός, a Clitus *the Fair*. Plutarch, therefore, probably wrote it, ὁ μέλας.

was so warmly received, that he had his horse killed under him. It was not, however, the famous Bucephalus. In this dispute he had more of his men killed and wounded, than in all the rest of the battle; for here they had to do with experienced soldiers, who fought with a courage heightened by despair.

The barbarians, we are told, lost in this battle twenty thousand foot and two thousand five hundred horse*; whereas Alexander had no more than thirty-four† men killed, nine of which were of the infantry. To do honour to their memory, he erected a statue to each of them in brass, the workmanship of Lyfippus. And that the Greeks might have their share in the glory of the day, he sent them presents out of the spoil: To the Athenians in particular he sent three hundred bucklers. Upon the rest of the spoils he put this pompous inscription, WON BY ALEXANDER THE SON OF PHILIP AND THE GREEKS (EXCEPTING THE LACÆDÆMONIANS) OF THE BARBARIANS IN ASIA. The greatest part of the plate, the purple furniture, and other things of that kind which he took from the Persians, he sent to his mother.

The battle made a great and immediate change in the face of Alexander's affairs; infomuch that Sardis, the principal ornament of the Persian empire on the maritime side, made its submission. All the other cities followed its example, except Halicarnassus and Miletus; these he took by storm, and subdued all the adjacent country. After this, he remained some time in suspense as to the course he should take. One while he was for going, with great expedition, to risque

* Some manuscripts mention only ten thousand foot killed, which is the number we have in Diodorus (505). Arrian (p. 45) makes the number of horse killed only a thousand.

† Arrian (47) says, there were about twenty-five of the king's *friends* killed; and of persons of *less note* sixty horse and thirty foot. Q. Curtius informs us, it was only the twenty-five *friends* who had statues. They were erected at Dia, a city of Macedonia, from whence Q. Metellus removed them long after, and carried them to Rome.

all upon the fate of one battle with Darius ; another while he was for first reducing all the maritime provinces ; that when he had exercised and strengthened himself by those intermediate actions and acquisitions, he might then march against that prince.

There is a spring in Lycia near the city of the Xanthians, which, they tell us, at that time turned its course of its own accord, and overflowing its banks, threw up a plate of brass, upon which were engraved certain ancient characters, signifying, “ That the Persian empire would one day come to a period, and “ be destroyed by the Greeks.” Encouraged by this prophecy, he hastened to reduce all the coast, as far as Phœnice* and Cilicia. His march through Pamphylia has afforded matter to many historians for pompous description, as if it was by the interposition of Heaven that the sea retired before Alexander, which, at other times, ran there with so strong a current, that the breaker rocks at the foot of the mountain very seldom were left bare. Menander, in his pleasant way, refers to this pretended miracle in one of his comedies:

*How like great Alexander ! Do I seek
A friend ? Spontaneous he presents himself.
Have I to march where seas indignant roll ?
The sea retires, and there I march.*

But Alexander himself, in his epistles, makes no miracle † of it, he only says, “ He marched from Phælis by the way called *Climax*.”

He

* This Phœnice, as Palmerius has observed, was a district of Lycia or Pamphylia.

† There is likewise a passage in Strabo, which fully proves that there was no miracle in it. “ Near the city of Phælis,” says he, “ between Lycia and Pamphylia, there is a passage by the sea-side, “ through which Alexander marched his army. This passage is “ very narrow, and lies between the shore and the mountain *Climax*, which overlooks the Pamphylian sea. It is dry at low water, “ so that travellers pass through it with safety ; but when the sea is “ high, it is overflowed. It was then the winter season, and Alexander, who depended much upon his good fortune, was resolved “ to set out without staying till the floods were abated ; so that his
“ me!

He had stayed some time at Phafelis ; and having found in the market-place a statue of Theodectes, who was of that place, but then dead, he went out one evening, when he had drunk freely at supper, in masquerade, and covered the statue with garlands. Thus, in an hour of festivity, he paid an agreeable compliment to the memory of a man with whom he formerly had a connection by means of Aristotle and philosophy.

After this, he subdued such of the Pisidians as had revolted, and conquered Phrygia. Upon taking Gordium, which is said to have been the seat of the ancient Midas, he found the famed chariot, fastened with cords made of the bark of the cornel-tree, and was informed of a tradition, firmly believed among the barbarians, " That the Fates had decreed the empire of " the world to the man who should untie the knot." Most historians say, it was twisted so many private ways, and the ends so artfully concealed within, that Alexander, finding he could not untie it, cut it asunder with his sword, and so made many ends instead of two. But Aristobulus affirms, that he easily undid it, by taking out the pin which fastened the yoke to the beam, and then drawing out the yoke itself.

His next acquisitions were Paphlagonia and Cappadocia ; and there news was brought him of the death of Memnon*, who was the most respectable officer
Darius

" men were forced to march up to the middle in water." STRAB. lib. xiv.

Josephus refers to this passage of Alexander, to gain the more credit among the Greeks and Romans to the passage of the Israelites through the Red Sea.

* Upon the death of Memnon, who had begun with great success to reduce the Greek islands, and was on the point of invading Eubœa, Darius was at a loss whom to employ. While he was in this suspense, Charidemus, an Athenian, who had served with great reputation under Philip of Macedon, but was now very zealous for the Persian interest, attempted to set the king and his ministers right. " While you, Sir," said he to Darius, " are safe, the empire can " never be in great danger. Let me therefore exhort you never

Darius had in the maritime parts of his kingdom, and likely to have given the invader most trouble. This confirmed him in his resolution of marching into the upper provinces of Asia.

By this time Darius had taken his departure from Susa, full of confidence in his numbers, for his army consisted of no less than six hundred thousand combatants; and greatly encouraged besides by a dream, which the *Magi* had interpreted rather in the manner they thought would please him, than with a regard to probability. He dreamt, "That he saw the Macedonian phalanx all on fire, and that Alexander, in the dress which he, Darius, had formerly worn, when one of the king's couriers*, acted as his servant; after which Alexander went into the temple of Belus, and there suddenly disappeared." By this Heaven seems to have signified, that prosperity and honour would attend the Macedonians; and that Alexander would become master of Asia, like Darius before him, who of a simple courier, became a king; but that he would nevertheless soon die, and leave his glory behind him.

Darius was still more encouraged by Alexander's long stay in Cilicia, which he looked upon as the effect of his fear. But the real cause of his stay was sickness, which some attribute to his great fatigues, and

"to expose your person, but to make choice of some able general to march against your enemy. One hundred thousand men will be more than sufficient, provided a third of them be mercenaries, to compel him to abandon this enterprize; and if you will honour me with the command, I will be accountable for the success of what I advise." Darius was ready to accede to the proposal; but the Persian grandees, through envy, accused Charidemus of a treasonable design, and effected his ruin. Darius repented in a few days, but it was then too late. That able counsellor and general was condemned and executed. DIOD. SIC. L. xvii. CURT. L. iii.

* In the text *Αστυαρχος*. But it appears from Hesychius and Suidas that it should be read *Αστραρχος*. It is the Persian word *istanda*, stator (from *stade*, stare), with a Greek termination; and we learn from Cicero, that *stator* signifies a courier.

others

others to his bathing in the river Cydnus, whose water is extremely cold. His physicians durst not give him any medicines, because they thought themselves not so certain of the cure, as of the danger they must incur in the application; for they feared, that the Macedonians, if they did not succeed, would suspect them of some bad practice. Philip, the Arcanian, saw how desperate the king's case was, as well as the rest; but, beside the confidence he had in his friendship, he thought it the highest ingratitude, when his master was in so much danger, not to risk something with him, in exhausting all his art for his relief. He therefore attempted the cure, and found no difficulty in persuading the king to wait with patience till his medicine was prepared, or to take it when ready; so desirous was he of a speedy recovery, in order to prosecute the war:

In the mean time, Parmenio sent him a letter from the camp, advising him "to beware of Philip, whom he said, Darius had prevailed upon, by presents of infinite value, and the promise of his daughter in marriage, to take him off by poison." As soon as Alexander had read the letter, he put it under his pillow, without shewing it to any of his friends. The time appointed being come, Philip, with the king's friends, entered the chamber, having the cup which contained the medicine in his hand. The king received it freely and without the least marks of suspicion, and at the same time put the letter in his hands. It was a striking situation, and more interesting than any scene in a tragedy; the one reading while the other was drinking. They looked upon each other, but with a very different air. The king with an open and unembarrassed countenance, expressed his regard for Philip, and the confidence he had in his honour; Philip's look shewed his indignation at the calumny. One while he lifted up his eyes and hands to heaven, protesting his fidelity; another while he threw himself down by the bed-side, entreating his master to be of good courage and trust to his care.

The medicine, indeed, was so strong, and overpowered his spirits in such a manner, that at first he was speechless, and discovered scarcely any sign of sense or life. But afterwards he was soon relieved by this faithful physician *, and recovered so well that he was able to shew himself to the Macedonians, whose distress did not abate till he came personally before them.

There was in the army of Darius a Macedonian fugitive, named Amyntas, who knew perfectly well the disposition of Alexander. This man, perceiving that Darius prepared to march through the straits in quest of Alexander, begged of him to remain where he was, and take the advantage of receiving an enemy, so much inferior to him in number, upon large and spacious plains. Darius answered, "He was afraid in that case the enemy would fly without coming to an action, and Alexander escape him." "If that is all your fear," replied the Macedonian, "let it give you no farther uneasiness; for he will come to seek you, and is already on his march." However, his representations had no effect: Darius set out for Cilicia; and Alexander was making for Syria in quest of him. But happening to miss each other in the night, they both turned back; Alexander rejoicing in his good fortune, and hastening to meet Darius in the straits; while Darius endeavoured to disengage himself, and recover his former camp. For by this time he was sensible of his error in throwing himself into ground hemmed in by the sea on the one side, and the mountains on the other, and intersected by the river Pinarus; so that it was impracticable for cavalry, and his infantry could only act in small and broken parties, while, at the same time, this situation was extremely convenient for the enemy's inferior numbers.

Thus fortune befriended Alexander as to the scene of action; but the skilful disposition of his forces contributed still more to his gaining the victory. As his

* In three days' time.

army was very small in comparison of that of Darius, he took care to draw it up so as to prevent its being surrounded, by stretching out his right wing farther than the enemy's left. In that wing he acted in person, and, fighting in the foremost ranks, put the barbarians to flight. He was wounded, however, in the thigh, and, according to Chares, by Darius, who engaged him hand to hand. But Alexander, in the account he gave Antipater of the battle, does not mention who it was that wounded him. He only says, he received a wound in his thigh by a sword, and that no dangerous consequences followed it.

The victory was a very signal one; for he killed above a hundred and ten thousand of the enemy*. Nothing was wanting to complete it but the taking of Darius; and that prince escaped narrowly, having got the start of his pursuer only by four or five furlongs. Alexander took his chariot and his bow, and returned with them to his Macedonians. He found them loading themselves with the plunder of the enemy's camp, which was rich and various; though Darius, to make his troops fitter for action, had left most of the baggage in Damascus. The Macedonians had reserved for their master the tent of Darius, in which he found officers of the household magnificently clothed, rich furniture, and great quantities of gold and silver.

As soon as he had put off his armour, he went to the bath, saying to those about him, "Let us go and refresh ourselves, after the fatigues of the field, in the bath of Darius." "Nay, rather," said one of his friends, "in the bath of Alexander; for the goods of the conquered are, and should be called, the conqueror's." When he had taken a view of the basins, vials, boxes, and other vases curiously wrought in gold, and had smelt the fragrant odours of essences, and seen the splendid furniture of spacious apartments,

* Diodorus says a hundred and thirty thousand.

he turned to his friends, and said, " This, then, it seems, it was to be a king*!"

As he was sitting down to table, an account was brought him, that among the prisoners were the mother and wife of Darius, and two unmarried daughters; and that upon seeing his chariot and bow, they broke out into great lamentations, concluding that he was dead. Alexander, after some pause, during which he was rather commiserating their misfortunes, than rejoicing in his own success, sent Leonatus to assure them, " that Darius was not dead; that they had nothing to fear from Alexander, for his dispute with Darius was only for empire; and that they should find themselves provided for in the same manner as when Darius was in his greatest prosperity." If this message to the captive princesses was gracious and humane, his actions were still more so. He allowed them to do the funeral honours to what Persians they pleased, and for that purpose furnished them out of the spoils with robes, and all the other decorations that were customary. They had as many domestics, and were served, in all respects, in as honourable a manner as before; indeed, their appointments were greater. But there was another part of his behaviour to them still more nobly and princely. Though they were now captives, he considered that they were ladies, not only of high rank, but of great modesty and virtue, and took care that they should not hear an indecent word, nor have the least cause to suspect any danger to their honour. Nay, as if they had been in a holy temple, or asylum of virgins, rather than in an enemy's camp, they lived unseen and unapproached, in the most sacred privacy.

It is said, the wife of Darius was one of the most beautiful women, as Darius was one of the tallest and handsomest men in the world, and that their daughters

* As if he had said, " Could a king place his happiness in such enjoyments as these?" For Alexander was not, till long after this, corrupted by the Persian luxury.

much

much resembled them. But Alexander, no doubt, thought it more glorious and worthy of a king to conquer himself than to subdue his enemies; and, therefore, never approached one of them. Indeed, his continence was such, that he knew not any woman before his marriage, except Barfine, who became a widow by the death of her husband Memnon, and was taken prisoner near Damascus. She was well versed in the Greek literature, a woman of the most agreeable temper, and of royal extraction; for her father Artabazus was grandson to a king of Persia*. According to Aristobulus, it was Parmenio that put Alexander upon this connection with so accomplished a woman, whose beauty was her least perfection. As for the other female captives, though they were tall and beautiful, Alexander took no farther notice of them than to say, by way of jest, "What eye-sores these Persian women are!" He found a countercharm in the beauty of self-government and sobriety; and, in the strength of that, passed them by, as so many statues.

Philoxenus, who commanded his forces upon the coast, acquainted him by letter, that there was one Theodorus, a Tarentine, with him, who had two beautiful boys to sell, and desired to know whether he chose to buy them. Alexander was so much incensed at this application, that he asked his friends several times, "What base inclinations Philoxenus had ever seen in him, that he durst make him so infamous a proposal?" In his answer to the letter, which was extremely severe upon Philoxenus, he ordered him to dismiss Theodorus and his vile merchandize together. He likewise reprimanded young Agnon, for offering to purchase Crobylus for him, whose beauty was famous in Corinth. Being informed, that two Macedonians, named Damon and Timotheus, had corrupted the wives of some of his mercenaries, who served un-

* Son to a king of Persia's daughter.

der Parmenio, he ordered that officer to enquire into the affair, and if they were found guilty, to put them to death, as no better than savages bent on the destruction of human kind. In the same letter, speaking of his own conduct, he expresses himself in these terms; "For my part, I have neither seen, nor desired to see, the wife of Darius; so far from that, I have not suffered any man to speak of her beauty before me." He used to say, "That sleep, and the commerce with the sex, were the things that made him most sensible of his mortality." For he considered both weariness and pleasure as the natural effects of our weakness.

He also was very temperate in eating. Of this there are many proofs; and we have a remarkable one in what he said to Ada, whom he called his mother, and had made queen of Caria*. Ada, to express her affectionate regards, sent him every day a number of excellent dishes, and a handsome desert; and at last she sent him some of her best cooks and bakers. But he said, "He had no need of them; for he had been supplied with better cooks by his tutor Leonidas; a march before day to dress his dinner, and a light dinner to prepare his supper." He added, that the same Leonidas used to examine the chests and wardrobes in which his bedding and clothes were put, lest something of luxury and superfluity should be introduced there by his mother."

Nor was he so much addicted to wine as he was thought to be. It was supposed so, because he passed a great deal of time at table; but that time was spent rather in talking than drinking; every cup introducing some long discourse. Besides, he never made these long

* This princess, after the death of her eldest brother Mausolus, and his consort Artemisia, who died without children, succeeded to the throne with her brother Hidreus, to whom she had been married. Hidreus dying before her, Pexodorus, her third brother, dethroned her, and after his death his son-in-law Orontes seized the crown. But Alexander restored her to the possession of her dominions.

meals but when he had abundance of leisure upon his hands. When business called, he was not to be detained by wine, or sleep, or pleasure, or honourable love, or the most entertaining spectacle, though the motions of other generals have been retarded by some of these things. His life sufficiently confirms this assertion; for, though very short, he performed in it innumerable great actions.

On his days of leisure, as soon as he was risen he sacrificed to the gods; after which he took his dinner sitting. The rest of the day he spent in hunting, or deciding the differences among his troops, or in reading and writing. If he was upon a march which did not require haste, he would exercise himself in shooting and darting the javelin, or in mounting and alighting from a chariot at full speed. Sometimes also he diverted himself with fowling and fox-hunting, as we find by his journals.

On his return to his quarters, when he went to be refreshed with the bath and with oil, he enquired of the stewards of his kitchen, whether they had prepared every thing in a handsome manner for supper. It was not till late in the evening, and when night was come on, that he took this meal, and then he eat in a recumbent posture. He was very attentive to his guests at table, that they might be served equally, and none neglected. His entertainments, as we have already observed, lasted many hours; but they were lengthened out rather by conversation than drinking. His conversation, in many respects, was more agreeable than that of most princes, for he was not deficient in the graces of society. His only fault was his retaining so much of the foldier*, as to indulge a troublesome vanity. He would not only boast of his own actions, but suffered himself to be cajoled by flatterers to an amazing degree. These wretches were an in-

* The ancients, in their comic pieces, used always to put the Rhodomontades in the character of a soldier. At present the army have as little vanity as any set of people whatever.

tolerable

tolerable burden to the rest of the company, who did not choose to contend with them in adulation, nor yet to appear behind them in their opinion of their king's achievements.

As to delicacies, he had so little regard for them, that when the choicest fruit and fish were brought him from distant countries and seas, he would send some to each of his friends, and he very often left none for himself. Yet there was always a magnificence at his table, and the expence rose with his fortune, till it came to ten thousand *drachmas* for one entertainment. There it stood; and he did not suffer those who invited him to exceed that sum.

After the battle of Issus he sent to Damascus, and seized the money and equipages of the Persians, together with their wives and children. On that occasion the Thessalian cavalry enriched themselves most. They had, indeed, greatly distinguished themselves in the action, and they were favoured with this commission, that they might have the best share in the spoil. Not but that the rest of the army found sufficient booty; and the Macedonians having once tasted the treasures and the luxury of the barbarians, hunted for the Persian wealth with all the ardour of hounds upon scent.

It appeared to Alexander a matter of great importance, before he went farther, to gain the maritime powers. Upon application, the kings of Cyprus and Phœnicia made their submission: only Tyre held out. He besieged that city seven months, during which time he erected vast mounts of earth, plied it with his engines, and invested it on the side next the sea with two hundred gallees. He had a dream in which he saw Hercules offering him his hand from the wall, and inviting him to enter. And many of the Tyrians dreamt, "that Apollo * declared he would go over to
" Alex-

* One of the Tyrians dreamt, he saw Apollo flying from the city. Upon his reporting this to the people, they would have stoned him, supposing that he did it to intimidate them. He was obliged,

“ Alexander, because he was displeas'd with their
 “ behaviour in the town.” Hereupon, the Tyrians,
 as if the god had been a deserter taken in the fact,
 loaded his statue with chains, and nailed the feet to the
 pedestal; not scrupling to call him an *Alexandrist*. In
 another dream Alexander thought he saw a satyr play-
 ing before him at some distance; and when he ad-
 vanced to take him, the savage eluded his grasp.
 However, at last, after much coaxing and taking
 many circuits round him, he prevail'd with him to
 surrender himself. The interpreters, plausibly enough,
 divided the Greek term for *satyr* into two *Sa Tyros*,
 which signifies *Tyre is thine*. They still shew us a
 fountain, near which Alexander is said to have seen
 that vision.

About the middle of the siege, he made an excursion
 against the Arabians who dwelt about Anti-Libanus.
 There he ran a great risque of his life on account of
 his preceptor Lyfimachus, who insisted on attending
 him; being, as he alleged, neither older nor less va-
 liant than Phoenix. But when they came to the
 hills, and quitted their horses, to march up on foot,
 the rest of the party got far before Alexander and
 Lyfimachus. Night came on, and, as the enemy
 was at no great distance, the king would not leave
 his preceptor borne down with fatigue and the weight
 of years. Therefore, while he was encouraging and
 helping him forward, he was insensibly separated from
 his troops; and had a dark and very cold night to
 pass in an exposed and dismal situation. In this per-
 plexity, he observed at a distance a number of scat-
 tered fires, which the enemy had lighted; and de-
 pending upon his swiftness and activity, as well as
 accustomed to extricate the Macedonians out of every
 difficulty, by taking a share in the labour and danger,

obliged, therefore, to take refuge in the temple of Hercules. But
 the magistrates, upon mature deliberation, resolv'd to fix one end of
 a gold chain to the statue of Apollo, and the other to the altar of
 Hercules. DIODOR. SIC. lib. xvii.

he

he ran to the next fire. After having killed two of the barbarians that sat watching it, he seized a lighted brand, and hastened with it to his party, who soon kindled a great fire. The sight of this so intimidated the enemy, that many of them fled, and those who ventured to attack him, were repulsed with considerable loss. By these means he passed the night in safety, according to the account we have from Chares.

As for the siege, it was brought to a determination in this manner. Alexander had permitted his main body to repose themselves, after the long and severe fatigues they had undergone, and ordered only some small parties to keep the Tyrians in play. In the mean time, Aristander, his principal soothsayer, offered sacrifices, and one day, upon inspecting the entrails of the victim, he boldly asserted among those about him, that the city would certainly be taken that month. As it happened then to be the last day of the month, his assertion was received with ridicule and scorn. The king perceiving he was disconcerted, and making it a point to bring the prophecies of his ministers to completion, gave orders that the day should not be called the thirtieth, but the twenty-eighth of the month. At the same time, he called out his forces by sound of trumpet, and made a much more vigorous assault than he at first intended. The attack was violent, and those who were left behind in the camp, quitted it to have a share in it, and to support their fellow-soldiers; insomuch that the Tyrians were forced to give out, and the city was taken that very day.

From thence he marched into Syria, and laid siege to Gaza, the capital of that country. While he was employed there, a bird, as it flew by, let fall a clod of earth upon his shoulder, and then going to perch on the cross cords with which they turned the engines, was entangled and taken. The event answered Aristander's interpretation of this sign: Alexander was wounded

wounded in the shoulder, but he took the city. He sent most of its spoils to Olympias and Cleopatra, and others of his friends. His tutor Leonidas was not forgotten; and the present he made him had something particular in it. It consisted of five hundred talents* weight of frankincense, and a hundred of myrrh, and was sent upon recollection of the hopes he had conceived when a boy. It seems Leonidas one day had observed Alexander at a sacrifice throwing incense into the fire by handfuls; upon which he said, "Alexander, when you have conquered the country where spices grow, you may be thus liberal of your incense; but, in the mean time, use what you have more sparingly." He therefore wrote thus: "I have sent you frankincense and myrrh in abundance, that you may be no longer a churl to the gods."

A casket being one day brought him, which appeared one of the most curious and valuable things among the treasures and the whole equipage of Darius, he asked his friends what they thought most worthy to be put in it? Different things were proposed; but he said, "The Iliad most deserved such a case." This particular is mentioned by several writers of credit. And if what the Alexandrians say, upon the faith of Heraclides, be true, Homer was no bad auxiliary, or useless counsellor, in the course of the war. They tell us, that when Alexander had conquered Egypt, and determined to build there a great city, which was to be peopled with Greeks, and called after his own name; by the advice of his architects he had marked out a piece of ground, and was preparing to lay the foundation, but a wonderful dream made him fix upon another situation. He thought, a per-

lb. oz. dwt. gr.

* The common Attic-talent in Troy-weight was 56 11 0 17½
 This talent consisted of 60 *minæ*, but there was
 another Attic talent, by some said to consist of
 80, by others of 100 *minæ*. The *mina* was 11 7 16½
 The talent of Alexandria was 104 0 19 14
 son

son with grey hair, and a very venerable aspect, approached him, and repeated the following lines :—

*High o'er a gulphy sea the Pharian isle
Fronfs the deep roar of difemboguing Nile.*

POPE.

Alexander, upon this, immediately left his bed, and went to Pharos, which at that time was an island lying a little above the *Canobic* mouth of the Nile, but now is joined to the continent by a causeway. He no sooner cast his eyes upon the place, than he perceived the commodiousness of the situation. It is a tongue of land, not unlike an *isthmus*, whose breadth is proportionable to its length. On one side it has a great lake, and on the other the sea, which there forms a capacious harbour*. This led him to declare, that “Homer, among his other admirable qualifications, “was an excellent architect;” and he ordered a city

* Ως εν ειδι τοποι ευφύια διαφεροτα (ταινηε ναε ετη ισθμω πλωτηε εχρητι συμπατροι επαιχως διεργυσα λιμνηε τε πολληε και θαλασσαε εν λιμνηε μεγαλω τελειωσαε).

Dacier understands this whole passage (which, as he observes, is not without its difficulties) as a description of the isle of Pharos. It certainly was the isle of Pharos that formed the harbour, which was a double one, and he adduces the authorities of Cæsar and Virgil to prove that point. But how did the isle of Pharos lie between, or divide the sea and a great lake? Dacier takes λιμνηε τε πολληε και θαλασσαε to mean the same as λιμνηε θαλασσαε. Alexandria, however, does certainly stand between the lake Marea, or Mareotis, and the Canopic branch of the Nile, which may well enough be called a sea. And the word διεργυσα does undoubtedly signify *separating* or *dividing*.

Our version of this passage is, moreover, confirmed by the account which Diodorus the Sicilian gives of the situation of Alexandria. That historian says, it was seated very commodiously by the haven of Pharos; the streets were so contrived as to admit the cooling breezes which refreshed the air. Alexander ordered a broad and high wall to be drawn around it, so as to have the sea close on one side, and a great lake on the other. Its form resembled that of a soldier's cloak. One large beautiful street passed from gate to gate, being in breadth about a hundred feet, in length forty furlongs, or five miles. It became in after-ages so rich and famous, that there were on its rolls three hundred thousand freemen. DIOD. SIC. L. xvii.

to be planned suitable to the ground, and its appendant conveniences. For want of chalk, they made use of flour, which answered well enough upon a black soil, and they drew a line with it about the semi-circular bay. The arms of this semi-circle were terminated by strait lines, so that the whole was in the form of a Macedonian cloak.

While the king was enjoying the design, on a sudden an infinite number of large birds, of various kinds, rose, like a black cloud, out of the river and the lake, and lighting upon the place, eat up all the flour that was used in marking out the lines. Alexander was disturbed at the omen; but the diviners encouraged him to proceed, by assuring him, it was a sign that the city he was going to build, would be blest with such plenty, as to furnish a supply to all that should repair to it from other nations.

The execution of the plan he left to his architects, and went to visit the temple of Jupiter Ammon. It was a long and laborious journey*; and beside the fatigue, there were two great dangers attending it. The one was, that their water might fail, in a desert of many days' journey which afforded no supply; and the other, that they might be surpris'd by a violent south wind amidst the wastes of sand, as it happened long before to the army of Cambyfes. The wind raised the sand, and rolled it in such waves, that it devoured full fifty thousand men. These difficulties were considered and represented to Alexander; but it was not

* As to his motives to this journey, historians disagree. Arrian (L. iii. c. 3.) tells us, he took it in imitation of Perseus and Hercules, the former of which had consulted that oracle, when he was dispatched against the Gorgans; and the latter twice, viz. when he went into Libya against Antæus, and when he marched into Egypt against Busiris. Now, as Perseus and Hercules gave themselves out to be the sons of the Grecian Jupiter, so Alexander had a mind to take Jupiter Ammon for his father. Maximus Tyrius (*Se. m. xxv.*) informs us, that he went to discover the fountains of the Nile; and Justin (L. xi. c. 11.) says, the intention of this visit was to clear up his mother's character, and to get himself the reputation of a divine origin.

easy to divert him from any of his purposes. Fortune had supported him in such a manner, that his resolutions were become invincibly strong; and his courage inspired him with such a spirit of adventure, that he thought it not enough to be victorious in the field, but he must conquer both time and place.

The divine assistances which Alexander experienced in this march, met with more credit than the oracles delivered at the end of it; though those extraordinary assistances in some measure confirmed the oracles. In the first place, Jupiter sent such a copious and constant rain, as not only delivered them from all fear of suffering by thirst, but, by moistening the sand and making it firm to the foot, made the air clear and fit for respiration. In the next place, when they found the marks which were to serve for guides to travellers, removed or defaced, and in consequence wandered up and down, without any certain route, a flock of crows made their appearance, and directed them in the way. When they marched briskly on, the crows flew with equal alacrity; when they lagged behind, or halted, the crows also stopped. What is still stranger, Callisthenes avers, that at night, when they happened to be gone wrong, these birds called them by their croaking, and put them right again.

When he had passed the desert, and was arrived at the place, the minister of Ammon received him with salutations from the god, as from a father. And when he enquired, "Whether any of the assassins of his father had escaped him," the priest desired he would not express himself in that manner, "for his father was not a mortal." Then he asked, "Whether all the murderers of Philip were punished; and whether it was given the proponent to be the conqueror of the world." Jupiter answered, "that he granted him that high distinction; and that the death of Philip was sufficiently avenged." Upon this, Alexander made his acknowledgments to the god by rich offerings, and loaded the priests with presents
of

of great value. This is the account most historians give us of the affair of the oracle; but Alexander himself, in the letter he wrote to his mother on that occasion, only says, "he received certain private answers from the oracle, which he would communicate to her, and her only, at his return."

Some say, Ammon's prophet being desirous to address him in an obliging manner in Greek, intended to say, *O Paidion*, which signifies, *My Son*; but in his barbarous pronunciation, made the word end with an *s*, instead of an *n*. and so said, *O pai dios*, which signifies, *O Son of Jupiter*. Alexander (they add) was delighted with the mistake in the pronunciation, and from that mistake was propagated a report that Jupiter himself had called him his son.

He went to hear Psammo an Egyptian philosopher, and the saying of his that pleased him most, was, "That all men are governed by God, for in every thing that which rules and governs is divine." But Alexander's own maxim was more agreeable to sound philosophy: He said, "God is the common father of men, but more particularly of the good and virtuous."

When among the barbarians, indeed, he affected a lofty port, such as might suit a man perfectly convinced of his divine original; but it was in a small degree, and with great caution, that he assumed any thing of divinity among the Greeks. We must except, however, what he wrote to the Athenians concerning Samos. "It was not I who gave you that free and famous city, but your then Lord, who was called my father," meaning Philip*.

Yet long after this, when he was wounded with an arrow, and experienced great torture from it, he said, "My friends, this is blood, and not the ichor

"Which blest immortals shed."

* He knew the Athenians were sunk into such meanness, that they would readily admit his pretensions to divinity. So afterwards they deified Demetrius.

One day it happened to thunder in such a dreadful manner, that it astonished all that heard it; upon which, Anaxarchus, the sophist, being in company with him, said, "Son of Jupiter, could you do so?" Alexander answered with a smile, "I do not choose to be so terrible to my friends as you would have me, who despise my entertainments, because you see fish served up, and not the heads of Persian grandees." It seems the king had made Hephestion a present of some small fish, and Anaxarchus observing it, said, "Why did he not rather send you the heads of princes*?" intimating, how truly despicable those glittering things are which conquerors pursue with so much danger and fatigue; since, after all, their enjoyments are little or nothing superior to those of other men. It appears then, from what has been said, that Alexander neither believed nor was elated with, the notion of his divinity, but that he only made use of it as a means to bring others into subjection.

At his return from Egypt to Phœnicia, he honoured the gods with sacrifices and solemn processions; on which occasion the people were entertained with music and dancing, and tragedies were presented in the greatest perfection, not only in respect to the magnificence of the scenery, but the spirit of emulation in those who exhibited them. In Athens persons are chosen by lot out of the tribes to conduct those exhibitions; but in this case the princes of Cyprus vied with each other with incredible ardour; particularly Nicocreon king

* Diogenes imputes this saying of Anaxarchus to the aversion he had for Nicocreon, tyrant of Salamis. According to him, Alexander having one day invited Anaxarchus to dinner, asked him how he liked his entertainment? "It is excellent," replied the guest, "it wants but one dish, and that a delicious one, the head of a tyrant." Not the heads of the *Sutrapæ*, or governors of provinces, as it is in Plutarch. If the philosopher really meant the head of Nicocreon he paid dear for his saying afterwards; for after the death of Alexander, he was forced, by contrary winds, upon the coast of Cyprus, where the tyrant seized him, and put him to death.

of Salamis, and Pasocrates king of Soli. They chose the most celebrated actors that could be found; Pasocrates risked the victory upon Athenodorus, and Nicocreon upon Theffalus. Alexander interested himself particularly in behalf of the latter; but did not discover his attachment, till Athenodorus was declared victor by all the suffrages. Then, as he left the theatre, he said, "I commend the judges for what they have done; but I would have given half my kingdom rather than have seen Theffalus conquered."

However, when Athenodorus was fined by the Athenians for not making his appearance on their stage at the feast of Bacchus, and intreated Alexander to write to them in his favour; though he refused to comply with that request, he paid his fine for him. Another actor named Lycon, a native of Scarphia, performing with great applause before Alexander, dextrously inserted in one of the speeches of the comedy a verse, in which he asked him for ten talents. Alexander laughed, and gave him them.

It was about this time, that he received a letter from Darius, in which that prince proposed, on condition of a pacification and future friendship, to pay him ten thousand talents in ransom of the prisoners, to cede to him all the countries on this side the Euphrates, and to give him his daughter in marriage. Upon his communicating these proposals to his friends, Parmenio said, "If I were Alexander, I would accept them." "So would I," said Alexander*, "if I were Parmenio." The answer he gave Darius was, "That if he would come to him, he should find the best of treatment; if not, he must go and seek him."

In consequence of this declaration he began his march; but he repented that he had set out so soon, when he received information that the wife of Darius was dead. That princess died in child-bed; and the concern of

* Longinus takes notice of this as an instance that it is natural for men of genius, even in their common discourse, to let fall something great and sublime.

Alexander was great, because he lost an opportunity of exercising his clemency. All he could do was to return, and bury her with the utmost magnificence. One of the eunuchs of the bed-chamber named Tirus, who was taken prisoner along with the princesses, at this time made his escape out of the camp, and rode off to Darius, with news of the queen's death.

Darius smote upon his head, and shed a torrent of tears. After which, he cried out, "Ah cruel destiny of the Persians! Was the wife and sister of their king, not only to be taken captive, but after her death to be deprived of the obsequies due to her high rank!" The eunuch answered, "As to her obsequies, O king, and all the honours the queen had a right to claim, there is no reason to blame the evil genius of the Persians. For neither my mistress, Statira, during her life, or your royal mother, or children, missed any of the advantages of their former fortune, except the beholding the light of your countenance, which the great Oromafdes* will again cause to shine with as much lustre as before. So far from being deprived of any of the solemnities of a funeral, the queen was honoured with the tears of her very enemies. For Alexander is as mild in the use of his victories, as he is terrible in battle."

On hearing this, Darius was greatly moved, and strange suspicions took possession of his soul. He took the eunuch into the most private apartment in his pavilion, and said, "If thou dost not revolt to the Macedonians, as the fortune of Persia has done, but still acknowledgest in me thy lord; tell me, as thou honourest the light of Mirtha and the right hand of the king, is not the death of Statira the least of her misfortunes I have to lament? Did not she suffer more dreadful things while she lived? And,

* *Oromafdes* was worshipped by the Persians as the Author of all Good; and *Arimanius* deemed the Author of Evil; agreeably to the principles from which they were believed to spring, Light and Darkness. The Persian writers call them *Yerdan* and *Abriman*.

“ amidst

“ amidst all our calamities, would not our disgrace
“ have been less, had we met with a more rigorous
“ and savage enemy? For what engagement in the
“ compass of virtue could bring a young man to do
“ such honour to the wife of his enemy?”

While the king was yet speaking, Tiresus humbled his face to the earth, and intreated him not to make use of expressions so unworthy of himself, so injurious to Alexander, and so dishonourable to the memory of his deceased wife and sister; nor to deprive himself of the greatest of consolations in his misfortune, the reflecting that he was not defeated but by a person superior to human nature. He assured him, Alexander was more to be admired for the decency of his behaviour to the Persian women, than for the valour he exerted against the men. At the same time, he confirmed all he had said, with the most awful oaths, and expatiated still more on the regularity of Alexander's conduct, and on his dignity of mind.

Then Darius returned to his friends; and lifting up his hands to heaven, he said, “ Ye gods, who are the
“ guardians of our birth and the protectors of king-
“ doms, grant that I may re-establish the fortunes of
“ Persia, and leave them in the glory I found them;
“ that victory may put it in my power to return
“ Alexander the favours which my dearest pledges
“ experienced from him in my fall! But if the time
“ determined by fate and the divine wrath, or brought
“ about by the vicissitude of things, is now come, and
“ the glory of the Persians must fall, may none but
“ Alexander sit on the throne of Cyrus!” In this manner things were conducted, and such were the speeches uttered on this occasion, according to the tenor of history.

Alexander having subdued all on this side the Euphrates, began his march against Darius; who had taken the field with a million of men. During this march, one of his friends mentioned to him, as a matter that might divert him, that the servants of the
army

army had divided themselves into two bands, and that each had chosen a chief, one of which they called Alexander and the other Darius. They began to skirmish with clods, and afterwards fought with their fists; and at last, heated with a desire of victory, many of them came to stones and sticks, insomuch that they could hardly be parted. The king, upon this report, ordered the two chiefs to fight in single combat, and armed Alexander with his own hands, while Philotas did the same for Darius. The whole army stood and looked on, considering the event of this combat as a presage of the issue of the war. The two champions fought with great fury; but he who bore the name of Alexander proved victorious. He was rewarded with a present of twelve villages, and allowed to wear a Persian robe, as Eratosthenes tells the story.

The great battle with Darius was not fought at Arbela*, as most historians will have it; but at Gaugamela, which, in the Persian tongue, is said to signify *the house of the camel*†; so called, because one of the ancient kings having escaped his enemies by the swiftness of his camel, placed her there, and appointed the revenue of certain villages for her maintenance.

In the month of *September* there happened an eclipse of the moon ‡, about the beginning of the festival of the great mysteries at Athens. The eleventh night after that eclipse, the two armies being in view of each other, Darius kept his men under arms, and took a general review of his troops by torch-light.

* But as Gaugamela was only a village, and Arbela, a considerable town, stood near it, the Macedonians chose to distinguish the battle by the name of the latter.

† Darius, the son of Hystaspes, crossed the deserts of Scythia upon that camel.

‡ Astronomers assure us, this eclipse of the moon happened the 20th of September, according to the Julian calendar; and therefore the battle of Arbela was fought the 1st of October.

Mean.

Meantime Alexander suffered his Macedonians to repose themselves, and with his soothsayer Aristander, performed some private ceremonies before his tent, and offered sacrifices to FEAR*. The oldest of his friends, and Parmenio in particular, when they beheld the plain between Niphates and the Gordyæan Mountains all illumined with the torches of the barbarians, and heard the tumultuary and appalling noise from their camp, like the bellowings of an immense sea, were astonished at their numbers, and observed among themselves how arduous an enterprise it would be, to meet such a torrent of war in open day. They waited upon the king, therefore, when he had finished the sacrifice, and advised him to attack the enemy in the night, when darkness would hide what was most dreadful in the combat. Upon which he gave them that celebrated answer, *I will not steal a victory.*

It is true, this answer has been thought by some to favour of the vanity of a young man, who derided the most obvious danger: yet others have thought it not only well calculated to encourage his troops at that time, but politic enough in respect to the future; because, if Darius happened to be beaten, it left him no handle to proceed to another trial, under pretence that night and darkness had been his adversaries, as he had before laid the blame upon the mountains, the narrow passes, and the sea. For in such a vast empire, it could never be the want of arms or men that would bring Darius to give up the dispute; but the ruin of his hopes and spirits, in consequence of the loss of a battle, where he had the advantage of numbers and of day-light.

* In the printed text it is *Φεβος, to Apollo*; but Amiot tells us, he found in several MSS. *Φεβος, to FEAR*. FEAR was not without her altars: Theseus sacrificed to her, as we have seen in his life: and Plutarch tells us, in the life of Agis and Cleomenes, that the Lacedæmonians built a temple to FEAR, whom they honoured, not as a pernicious dæmon, but as the bond of all good government.

When

When his friends were gone, Alexander retired to rest in his tent, and he is said to have slept that night much sounder than usual; inasmuch, that when his officers came to attend him the next day, they could not but express their surprise at it, while they were obliged themselves to give out orders to the troops to take their morning refreshment*. After this, as the occasion was urgent, Parmenio entered his apartment, and standing by the bed, called him two or three times by name. When he awaked, that officer asked him, "Why he slept like a man that had already conquered, and not rather like one who had the greatest battle the world ever heard of to fight." Alexander smiled at the question, and said, "In what light can you look upon us but as conquerors, when we have not now to traverse desolate countries in pursuit of Darius, and he no longer declines the combat?" It was not, however, only before the battle, but in the face of danger, that Alexander shewed his intrepidity and excellent judgment. For the battle was some time doubtful. The left wing, commanded by Parmenio, was almost broken by the impetuosity with which the Bactrian cavalry charged; and Mazeus had, moreover, detached a party of horse, with orders to wheel round and attack the corps that was left to guard the Macedonian baggage. Parmenio, greatly disturbed at these circumstances, sent messengers to acquaint Alexander, that his camp and baggage would be taken if he did not immediately dispatch a strong reinforcement from the front to the rear. The moment that account was brought him, he was giving his right wing, which he commanded in person, the signal to charge. He stopped, however, to tell the messenger, "Parmenio must have lost his senses, and in his disorder must have forgotten that the conquerors are always masters of all that belonged to the enemy; and the conquered need not give themselves any concern about their treasures or prisoners, nor have

* *Ἀριστομισθία*.

" any

“ any thing to think of but how to fell their lives
“ dear, and die in the bed of honour.”

As soon as he had returned Parmenio this answer, he put on his helmet; for in other points he came ready armed out of his tent. He had a short coat of the Sicilian fashion, girt close about him, and over that a breast-plate of linen strongly quilted, which was found among the spoils at the battle of Issus. His helmet, the workmanship of Theophilus, was of iron, but so well polished, that it shone like the brightest silver. To this was fitted a gorget of the same metal, set with precious stones. His sword, the weapon he generally used in battle, was a present from the king of the Citieans, and could not be excelled for lightness or for temper. But the belt which he wore in all engagements, was more superb than the rest of his armour. It was given him by the Rhodians, as a mark of their respect, and old Helicon had exerted all his art in it. In drawing up his army and giving orders, as well as exercising and reviewing it, he spared Bucephalus on account of his age, and rode another horse; but he constantly charged upon him; and he had no sooner mounted him, than the signal was always given.

The speech he made to the Thessalians and the other Greeks, was of some length on this occasion. When he found that they, in their turn, strove to add to his confidence, and called out to him to lead them against the barbarians, he shifted his javelin to his left hand; and stretching his right hand towards heaven, according to Callisthenes, he intreated the gods to “ defend and invigorate the Greeks, if he was really
“ the son of Jupiter.”

Aristander the soothsayer, who rode by his side, in a white robe, and with a crown of gold upon his head, then pointed out an eagle flying over him, and directing his course against the enemy. The sight of this so animated the troops, that after mutual exhortations to bravery, the cavalry charged at full speed,

speed, and the *phalanx* rushed on like a torrent*. Before the first ranks were well engaged, the barbarians gave way, and Alexander pressed hard upon the fugitives, in order to penetrate into the midst of the host; where Darius acted in person. For he beheld him at

* Plutarch, as a writer of lives, not of histories, does not pretend to give an exact description of battles. But as many of our readers, we believe, will be glad to see some of the more remarkable in detail, we shall give Arrian's account of this.

Alexander's right wing charged first upon the Scythian horse, who, as they were well armed, and very robust, behaved at the beginning very well, and made a vigorous resistance. That this might answer more effectually, the chariots placed in the left wing bore down at the same time upon the Macedonians. Their appearance was very terrible, and threatened entire destruction; but Alexander's light-armed troops, by their darts, arrows, and stones, killed many of the drivers, and more of the horses, so that few reached the Macedonian line; which opening, as Alexander had directed, they only passed through, and were then either taken, or disabled by his bodies of reserve. The horse continued still engaged; and, before any thing decisive happened there, the Persian foot, near their left wing, began to move, in hopes of falling upon the flank of the Macedonian right wing, or of penetrating so far as to divide it from its centre. Alexander, perceiving this, sent Aratas with a corps to charge them, and prevent their intended manoeuvre. In the mean time, prosecuting his first design, he broke their cavalry in the left wing, and entirely routed it. He then charged the Persian foot in flank, and they made but a feeble resistance. Darius, perceiving this, gave up all for lost, and fled.

Vide ARRIAN, l. iii. c. 13. & seq. ubi plura.

Diodorus ascribes the success which for a time attended the Persian troops, entirely to the conduct and valour of Darius. It unfortunately happened, that Alexander attacking his guards, threw a dart at Darius, which, though it missed him, struck the charioteer, who sat at his feet, dead; and as he fell forwards, some of the guards raised a loud cry; whence those behind them conjectured that the king was slain; and thereupon fled. This obliged Darius to follow their example, who knowing the route he took could not be discovered on account of the dust and confusion, wheeled about, and got behind the Persian army, and continued his flight that way, while Alexander pursued right forwards.

DIOD. SIC. l. xvii.

Justin tells us, that when those about Darius advised him to break down the bridge of the Cydnus, to retard the enemy's pursuit, he answered, "I will never purchase safety to myself at the expence of so many thousands of my subjects, as must by this means be lost."

JUST. l. xi. c. 14.

a distance,

a distance, over the foremost ranks, amidst his royal squadron. Besides that he was mounted upon a lofty chariot, Darius was easily distinguished by his size and beauty. A numerous body of select cavalry stood in close order about the chariot, and seemed well prepared to receive the enemy. But Alexander's approach appeared so terrible, as he drove the fugitives upon those who still maintained their ground, that they were seized with consternation, and the greatest part of them dispersed. A few of the best and bravest of them, indeed, met their death before the king's chariot, and falling in heaps one upon another, strove to stop the pursuit; for in the very pangs of death they clung to the Macedonians, and caught hold of their horses' legs as they lay upon the ground.

Darius had now the most dreadful dangers before his eyes. His own forces, that were placed in the front to defend him, were driven back upon him; the wheels of his chariot were, moreover, entangled among the dead bodies, so that it was almost impossible to turn it; and the horses plunging among heaps of the slain, bounded up and down, and no longer obeyed the hands of the charioteer. In this extremity he quitted the chariot and his arms, and fled, as they tell us, upon a mare which had newly foaled. But, in all probability, he had not escaped so, if Parmenio had not again sent some horsemen to desire Alexander to come to his assistance, because great part of the enemy's forces still stood their ground, and kept a good countenance. Upon the whole, Parmenio is accused of want of spirit and activity in that battle: whether it was that age had damped his courage; or whether, as Callisthenes tells us, he looked upon Alexander's power, and the pompous behaviour he assumed, with an invidious eye, and considered it as an insupportable burden *. Alexander, though vexed
at

* The truth seems to be, that Parmenio had too much concern for Alexander. Philip of Macedon confessed Parmenio to be the only general

at being so stopt in his career, did not acquaint the troops about him with the purport of the message; but under pretence of being weary of such a carnage, and of its growing dark, founded a retreat. However, as he was riding up to that part of his army which had been represented in danger, he was informed that the enemy were totally defeated and put to flight.

The battle having such an issue, the Persian empire appeared to be entirely destroyed, and Alexander was acknowledged king of all Asia. The first thing he did was to make his acknowledgments to the gods by magnificent sacrifices; and then to his friends, by rich gifts of houses, estates, and governments. As he was particularly ambitious of recommending himself to the Greeks, he signified by letter, that all tyrannies should be abolished, and that they should be governed by their own laws under the auspices of freedom. To the Platæans in particular he wrote, that their city should be rebuilt, because their ancestors had made a present of their territory to the Greeks, in order that they might fight the cause of liberty upon their own lands. He sent also a part of the spoils to the Crotonians in Italy, in honour of the spirit and courage of their countryman Phaylus*, a champion of the wrestling-ring, who, in the war with the Medes, when the rest of the Greeks in Italy sent no assistance to the Greeks their brethren, fitted out a ship at his own expence, and repaired to Salamis, to take his share in the common danger. Such a pleasure did Alexander take in every instance of virtue, and so faithful a guardian was he of the honour of all great actions!

general he knew: on this occasion he probably considered, that if the wing under his command had been beaten, that corps of Persians would have been able to keep the field, and the fugitives rallying, and joining it, there would have been a respectable force, which might have regained the day.

* In Herodotus, *Phoyllus*. See l. viii. 47.

He

He traversed all the province of Babylon *, which immediately made its submission ; and in the district of Ecbatana he was particularly struck with a gulph of fire, which streamed continually, as from an inexhaustible source. He admired also a flood of *naphtha*, not far from the gulph, which flowed in such abundance that it formed a lake. The *naphtha* in many respects resembles the *bitumen*, but it is much more inflammable †. Before any fire touches it, it catches light from a flame at some distance, and often kindles all the intermediate air. The barbarians, to shew the king its force and the subtilty of its nature, scattered some drops of it in the street which led to his lodgings ; and standing at one end, they applied their torches to some of the first drops ; for it was night. The flame communicated itself swifter than thought, and the street was instantaneously all on fire.

There was one Athenophanes, an Athenian, who, among others, waited on Alexander when he bathed, and anointed him with oil. This man had the greatest success in his attempts to divert him ; and one day a boy, named Stephen, happening to attend at the bath, who was homely in his person, but an excellent singer, Athenophanes said to the king, “ Shall we make an experiment of the *naphtha* upon Stephen ? If it takes fire upon him, and does not presently die out, we must allow its force to be extraordinary indeed.” The boy readily consented to undergo the trial ; but

* In the original it is, *As he traversed the territory of Babylon, he found in the district of Ecbatana, &c.* Every body knows that Ecbatana was in Media, not in the province of Babylon. The gulph here mentioned was near Arbela, in the district of *Artacene*. [See STRAB. ed. Par. p. 737. D. & seq.] But Scaliger proposes, that we should read *Araçtane* (from *Arec*, mentioned Gen. x. 10.) both here, instead of Ecbatana, and in the passage of Strabo above cited.

† Sunt qui et naphtham bituminis generi ascribunt. Verum ardens ejus vis ignium naturæ cognata procul omni ab usu est.

PLIN. Hist. Nat.

as soon as he was anointed with it*, his whole body broke out into a flame, and Alexander was extremely concerned at his danger. Nothing could have prevented his being entirely consumed by it, if there had not been people at hand with many vessels of water for the service of the bath. As it was, they found it difficult to extinguish the fire, and the poor boy felt the bad effects of it as long as he lived.

Those, therefore, who desire to reconcile the fable with truth, are not unsupported by probability, when they say, it was this drug with which Medea anointed the crown and veil so well known upon the stage‡. For the flame did not come from the crown or veil, nor did they take fire of themselves; but, upon the approach of fire, they soon attracted it, and kindled imperceptibly. The emanations of fire at some distance have no other effect upon most bodies, than merely to give them light and heat; but in those which are dry and porous, or saturated with oily particles, they collect themselves into a point, and immediately prey upon the matter so well fitted to receive them. Still there remains a difficulty as to the generation of this *naphtha*; whether it derives its inflammable quality from * * * * * †, or rather from the unctuous and sulphureous nature of the soil. For in the province of Babylon the ground is of so fiery a quality, that the grains of barley often leap up and are thrown out, as if the violent heat gave a pulsation to the earth. And in the hot months the people are obliged to sleep upon skins filled with water. Harpalus, whom Alexander left governor of the country, was ambitious to adorn the royal palaces and walks with Grecian trees and plants; and he succeeded

* As no mention is made here of the application of fire, unless that be couched under the words *καὶ δρυὶν*, we must suppose an electrical virtue in the *naphtha*. But Plutarch seems to disclaim that afterwards, in the case of Creon's daughter.

† Hoc delibutis ulta donis pellicem.

Serpente fugit alite. HOR.

‡ Something here is wanting in the original.

in every thing except ivy. After all his attempts to propagate that plant, it died : for it loves a cold soil, and therefore could not bear the temper of that mold. Such digressions as these the nicest readers may endure, provided they are not too long.

Alexander having made himself master of Susa, found in the king's palace forty thousand talents* in coined money, and the royal furniture and other riches were of inexpressible value. Among other things, there was purple of Hermione, worth five thousand talents†, which, though it had been laid up a hundred and ninety years, retained its first freshness and beauty. The reason they assign for this, is, that the purple wool was combed with honey, and the white with white oil. And we are assured, that specimens of the same kind and age are still to be seen in all their pristine lustre. Dinon informs us, that the kings of Persia used to have water fetched from the Nile and the Danube, and put among their treasures as a proof of the extent of their dominions, and their being masters of the world.

The entrance into Persia was difficult, on account of the roughness of the country in that part, and because the passes were guarded by the bravest of the Persians ; for Darius had taken refuge there. But a man who spoke both Greek and Persian, having a Lycian to his father, and a Persian woman to his mother, offered himself as a guide to Alexander, and shewed him how he might enter by taking a circuit. This was the person the priestess of Apollo had in view, when, upon Alexander's consulting her at a very early period of life, she foretold, " that a Lycian " would conduct him into Persia." Those that first fell into his hands there, were slaughtered in vast

* Q. Curtius, who magnifies every thing, says fifty thousand.

† Or five thousand talents weight. Dacier calls it so many hundred weight ; and the eastern talent was near that weight. Pliny tells us, that a pound of the double dypt Tyrian purple, in the time of Augustus, was sold for an hundred crowns.

numbers. He tells us, he ordered that no quarter should be given, because he thought such an example would be of service to his affairs. It is said, he found as much gold and silver coin there as he did at Susa, and that there was such a quantity of other treasures and rich moveables, that it loaded ten thousand pair of mules and five thousand camels*.

At Persepolis he cast his eyes upon a great statue of Xerxes, which had been thrown from its pedestal by the crowd that suddenly rushed in, and lay neglected on the ground. Upon this he stopped, and addressed it as if it had been alive: "Shall we leave you," said he, "in this condition, on account of the war you made upon Greece, or rear you again for the sake of your magnanimity and other virtues?" After he had stood a long time considering in silence which he should do, he passed by and left it as it was. To give his troops time to refresh themselves, he stayed there four months; for it was winter.

The first time he sat down on the throne of the kings of Persia, under a golden canopy, Demaratus the Corinthian, who had the same friendship and affection for Alexander as he had entertained for his father Philip, is said to have wept like an old man, while he uttered this exclamation, "What a pleasure have those Greeks missed, who died without seeing Alexander seated on the throne of Darius."

When he was upon the point of marching against Darius, he made a great entertainment for his friends, at which they drank to a degree of intoxication; and the women had their share in it, for they came in masquerade to seek their lovers. The most celebrated among these women was Thais, a native of Attica, and mistress to Ptolemy, afterwards king of Egypt. When she had gained Alexander's attention by her flattery and humorous vein, she addressed him over her cups in a manner agreeable to the spirit of her

* Diodorus says three thousand.

country,

country, but far above a person of her stamp. "I have undergone great fatigues," said she, "in wandering about Asia; but this day has brought me a compensation, by putting it in my power to insult the proud courts of the Persian kings. Ah! how much greater pleasure would it be to finish the carousal with burning the palace of Xerxes, who laid Athens in ashes, and to set fire to it myself in the fight of Alexander *! Then shall it be said in times to come, that the women of his train have more signally avenged the cause of Greece upon the Persians, than all that the generals before him could do by sea or land."

This speech was received with the loudest plaudits and most tumultuary acclamations. All the company strove to persuade the king to comply with the proposal. At last, yielding to their instances, he leaped from his seat, and with his garland on his head, and a flambeau in his hand, led the way. The rest followed with shouts of joy, and dancing as they went, spread themselves round the palace. The Macedonians who got intelligence of this frolic, ran up with lighted torches, and joined them with great pleasure. For they concluded, from his destroying the royal palace, that the king's thoughts were turned towards home, and that he did not design to fix his seat among the barbarians. Such is the account most writers give us of the motives of this transaction. There are not, however, wanting those who assert, that it was in consequence of cool reflection. But all agree that the king soon repented, and ordered the fire to be extinguished.

As he was naturally munificent, that inclination

* These domes were not reared solely for regal magnificence and security; but to aid the appetites of power and luxury, and to secrete the royal pleasures from those that toiled to gratify them. Thus, as this noble structure was possibly raised not only for vanity but for riot; so probably, by vanity inflamed by riot it fell. A striking instance of the insignificance of human labours, and the depravity of human nature!

increased with his extraordinary acquisitions; and he had also a gracious manner, which is the only thing that gives bounty an irresistible charm. To give a few instances: Ariston, who commanded the Pæonians, having killed one of the enemy, and cut off his head, laid it at Alexander's feet, and said, "Among us, sir, such a present is rewarded with a golden cup." The king answered, with a smile, "An empty one, I suppose; but I will give you one full of good wine; and here, my boy, I drink to you." One day, as a Macedonian of mean circumstances was driving a mule, laden with the king's money, the mule tired; the man then took the burden upon his own shoulders, and carried it till he tottered under it, and was ready to give out. Alexander happening to see him, and being informed what it was, said, "Hold on, friend, the rest of the way, and carry it to your own tent; for it is yours." Indeed, he was generally more offended at those who refused his presents, than at those who asked favours of him. Hence he wrote to Phocion, "That he could no longer number him among his friends, if he rejected the marks of his regard." He had given nothing to Serapion, one of the youths that played with him at ball, because he asked nothing. One day, when they were at their diversion, Serapion took care always to throw the balls to others of the party; upon which Alexander said, "Why do you not give it me?" "Because you did not ask for it," said the youth. The repartee pleased the king much; he laughed, and immediately made him very valuable presents. One Proteas, a man of humour, and a jester by profession, had happened to offend him. His friends interceded for him, and he sued for pardon with tears; which at last the king granted. "If you do really pardon me," resumed the wag, "I hope you will give me at least some substantial proof of it." And he condescended to do it in a present of five talents.

With

With what a free hand he showered his gifts upon his friends, and those who attended on his person*, appears from one of the letters of Olympias. "You do well," said she, "in serving your friends, and in is right to act nobly; but, by making them all equal to kings, in proportion as you put it in their power to make friends, you deprive yourself of that privilege." Olympias often wrote to him in that manner; but he kept all her letters secret, except one, which Hephæstion happened to cast his eye upon, when he went, according to custom, to read over the king's shoulder; he did not hinder him from reading on; only, when he had done, he took his signet from his finger, and put it to his mouth †.

The son of Mazzæus, who was the principal favourite of Darius, was already governor of a province, and the conqueror added to it another government still more considerable. But the young man declined it in a handsome manner, and said, "Sir, we had but one Darius, and now you make many Alexanders." He bestowed on Parmenio the house of Bagoas, in which were found such goods ‡ as were taken at Susa, to the value of a thousand talents. He wrote to Antipater to acquaint him, that there was a design formed against his life, and ordered him to keep guards about him. As for his mother he made her many magnificent presents; but he would not suffer her busy genius to exert itself in state affairs, or in the least to controul the proceedings of government. She complained of this as a hardship, and he bore her ill

* He probably means in particular the fifty young men brought him by Amyntas, who were of the principal families in Macedonia. Their office was to wait on him at table, to attend with horses when he went to fight or to hunt, and to keep guard day and night at his chamber-door.

† To enjoin him silence.

‡ Ταῖς πρὸς οὐρανὸν—ματιόμοις drapery goods. This we take to mean such like purple as was taken at Susa, or perhaps that very purple. Dacier reads *Hephæstion*, instead of *Parmenio*. The Vulcob. M. S. has *Σουσα*, instead of *Σουσι*, which is certainly better.

humour with great mildness. Antipater once wrote him a long letter full of heavy complaints against her; and when he had read it, he said "Antipater knows not that one tear of a mother can blot out a thousand such complaints."

He found that his great officers set no bounds to their luxury, that they were most extravagantly delicate in their diet, and profuse in other respects; inso-much that Agnon of Teos wore silver nails in his shoes, Leonatus had many camel loads of earth brought from Egypt to rub himself with when he went to the wrestling-ring, Philotas had hunting-nets that would enclose the space of an hundred furlongs; more made use of rich essences than oil after bathing, and had their grooms of the bath, as well as chamberlains who excelled in bed-making. This degeneracy he reproved with all the temper of a philosopher. He told them, "It was very strange to him, that, after having undergone so many glorious conflicts, they did not remember that those who come from labour and exercise always sleep more sweetly than the inactive and effeminate; and that in comparing the Persian manners with the Macedonian, they did not perceive that nothing was more servile than the love of pleasure, or more princely than a life of toil. How will that man," continued he, "take care of his own horse, furbish his lance and helmet, whose hands are too delicate to wait on his own dear person? Know you not that the end of conquest is, not to do what the conquered have done, but something greatly superior?" After this, he constantly took the exercise of war or hunting, and exposed himself to danger and fatigue and less precaution than ever; so that a Lacedæmonian ambassador, who attended him one day when he killed a fierce lion, said, "Alexander, you have disputed the prize of royalty gloriously with the lion." Craterus got this hunting-piece represented in bronze, and consecrated it in the temple at Delphi.
There

There were the lion, the dogs, the king fighting with the lion, and Craterus making up to the king's assistance. Some of these statues were the workmanship of Lyfippus, and others of Leochares.

Thus Alexander hazarded his person, by way of exercise for himself, and example to others. But his friends, in the pride of wealth, were so devoted to luxury and ease, that they considered long marches and campaigns as a burden, and by degrees came to murmur and speak ill of the king. At first he bore their censures with great moderation, and used to say, "There was something noble in hearing himself ill spoken of while he was doing well*." Indeed, in the least of the good offices he did his friends, there were great marks of affection and respect. We will give an instance or two of it. He wrote to Peucestas, who had been bitten by a bear in hunting, to complain, that he had given an account of the accident, by letters, to others of his friends, and not to him. "But now," says he, "let me know, how ever, how you do, and whether any of your company deserted you, that I may punish them, if such there were." When Hephæstion happened to be absent upon business, he acquainted him, in one of his letters, that as they were diverting themselves with hunting the ichneumon †, Craterus had the misfortune

* Voltaire says somewhere, that it is a noble thing to make ingrates. He seems to be indebted for the sentiment to Alexander.

† The Egyptian rat, called *ichneumon*, is of the size of a cat, with very rough hair, spotted with white, yellow, and ash colour; its nose like that of a hog, with which it digs up the earth. It has short black legs, and a tail like a fox. It lives on lizards, serpents, snails, chamelions, &c. and is of great service in Egypt, by its natural instinct of hunting out and breaking the eggs of the crocodile, and thereby preventing too great an increase of that destructive creature. The naturalists also say, that it is so greedy after the crocodile's liver, that rolling itself up in mud, it slips down his throat, while he sleeps with his mouth open, and gnaws its way out again.

DIOD. SIC. p. 32, 78. PLIN. l. viii. c. 24, 25.

The Egyptians worshipped the ichneumon for destroying the crocodiles;

tune to be run through the thighs with Perdiccas's lance. When Peucestas recovered of a dangerous illness, he wrote a letter with his own hand to Alexippus the physician, to thank him for his care. During the sickness of Craterus, the king had a dream, in consequence of which he offered sacrifices for his recovery, and ordered him to do the same. Upon Pausanias the physician's design to give Craterus a dose of hellebore, he wrote to him, expressing his great anxiety about it, and desiring him to be particularly cautious in the use of that medicine. He imprisoned Ephialtes and Ciffus, who brought him the first news of the flight and treasonable practices of Harpalus, supposing their information false. Upon his sending home the invalids and the superannuated, Eurylochus, the Agean, got himself enrolled among the former. Soon after, it was discovered that he had no infirmity of body; and he confessed it was the love of Telefippa, who was going to return home, that put him upon that expedient to follow her. Alexander enquired who the woman was, and being informed that, though a courtesan, she was not a slave, he said, "Eurylochus, I am willing to assist you in this affair; but, as the woman is free born, you must see if we can prevail upon her by presents and courtship."

It is surprising that he had time or inclination to write letters about such unimportant affairs of his friends, as to give orders for diligent search to be made in Cicilia for Seleucus's run-away slave; to commend Peucestas for having seized Nikon, a slave that belonged to Craterus; and to direct Megabyzus, if possible, to draw another slave from his asylum, and take him, but not to touch him while he remained in the temple.

It is said, that in the first years of his reign, when capital causes were brought before him, he used to stop

codiles: they worshipped the crocodile, too, probably as the Indians do the devil, that it might do them no hurt.

one of his ears with his hand, while the plaintiff was opening the indictment, that he might reserve it perfectly unprejudiced for hearing the defendant. But the many false informations which were afterwards lodged, and which, by means of some true circumstances, were so represented as to give an air of truth to the whole, broke his temper. Particularly in case of aspersions upon his own character, his reason forsook him, and he became extremely and inflexibly severe; as preferring his reputation to life and empire.

When he marched against Darius again, he expected another battle. But upon intelligence that Bessus had seized the person of that prince, he dismissed the Thessalians and sent them home, after he had given them a gratuity of two thousand talents, over and above their pay. The pursuit was long and laborious, for he rode three thousand three hundred furlongs in eleven days*. As they often suffered more for want of water than by fatigue, many of the cavalry were unable to hold out. While they were upon the march, some Macedonians had filled their bottles at a river, and were bringing the water upon mules. These people seeing Alexander greatly distressed with thirst (for it was in the heat of the day), immediately filled a helmet with water, and presented it to him. He asked them to whom they were carrying it? and they said, "Their sons: but if our prince does but live, we shall get other children, if we lose them." Upon this he took the helmet in his hands; but looking round, and seeing all the horsemen bending their heads, and fixing their eyes upon the water, he returned it without drinking. However, he praised the people that offered it, and

* As this was no more than forty miles a day, our Newmarket heroes would have beat Alexander hollow. It is nothing when compared to Charles the Twelfth's march from Bender through Germany, nothing to the expedition of Hannibal along the African coast.

said,

said, "If I alone drink, these good men will be dispirited*." The cavalry, who were witnesses to this act of temperance and magnanimity, cried out, "Let us march! We are neither weary nor thirsty; nor shall we even think ourselves mortal, while under the conduct of such a king." At the same time they put spurs to their horses.

They had all the same affection to the cause, but only sixty were able to keep up with him till he reached the enemy's camp. There they rode over the gold and silver that lay scattered about, and passing by a number of carriages full of women and children, which were in motion, but without charioteers, they hastened to the leading squadrons, not doubting that they should find Darius among them. At last, after much search, they found him extended on his chariot and pierced with many darts. Though he was near his last moments, he had strength to ask for something to quench his thirst. A Macedonian, named Polystratus, brought him some cold water, and when he had drank, he said, "Friend, this fills up the measure of my misfortunes, to think I am not able to reward thee for this act of kindness. But Alexander will not let thee go without a recompense; and the gods will reward Alexander for his humanity to my mother, to my wife and children. Tell him I gave him my hand, for I give it thee in his stead." So saying, he took the hand of Polystratus, and immediately expired. When Alexander came up, he shewed his concern for that event by the strongest expressions, and covered the body with his own robe.

Bessus afterwards fell into his hands, and he punished the parricide in this manner. He caused two straight trees to be bent, and one of his legs to be made fast to each; then suffering the trees to return to their

* Lucan has embellished this story for Cato, and has possibly introduced it merely upon imitation.

former posture, his body was torn asunder by the violence of the recoil*.

As for the body of Darius, he ordered it should have all the honours of a royal funeral, and sent it embalmed to his mother. Oxathres, that prince's brother, he admitted into the number of his friends.

His next movement was into Hyrcania, which he entered with the flower of his army. There he took a view of the Caspian sea, which appeared to him not less than the Euxine, but its water was of a sweeter taste. He could get no certain information in what manner it was formed, but he conjectured that it came from an outlet of the Palus Mæotis. Yet the ancient naturalists were not ignorant of its origin; for many years before Alexander's expedition, they wrote, that there are four seas which stretch from the main ocean into the continent, the farthest north of which is the Hyrcanian or the Caspian†. The barbarians here fell suddenly upon a party who were leading his horse Bucephalus, and took him. This provoked him so much, that he sent a herald to threaten them, their wives and children, with utter extermination, if they did not restore him the horse. But, upon their bringing him back, and surrendering to him their cities, he treated them with great clemency, and paid a considerable sum, by way of ransom, to those that took the horse.

From thence he marched into Parthia; where finding no employment for his arms, he first put on the robe of the barbarian kings: whether it was that he conformed a little to their customs, because he knew how much a similarity of manners tends to reconcile and gain men's hearts; or whether it was by way of

* Q. Curtius tells us, Alexander delivered up the assassin to Oxathres, the brother of Darius; in consequence of which he had his nose and ears cut off, and was fastened to a cross, where he was dispatched with darts and arrows.

† This is an error which Pliny too has followed. The Caspian sea has no communication with the ocean.

experiment, to see if the Macedonians might be brought to pay him the greater deference, by accustoming them insensibly to the new barbaric attire and port which he assumed. However, he thought the Median habit made too stiff and exotic an appearance, and therefore took not the long breeches, or the sweeping train, or the *tiara*; but adopting something between the Median and Persian mode, contrived vestments less pompous than the former, and more majestic than the latter. At first he used this dress only before the barbarians, or his particular friends within doors; but in time he came to wear it when he appeared in public, and sat for the dispatch of business. This was a mortifying sight to the Macedonians: yet, as they admired his other virtues, they thought he might be suffered to please himself a little, and enjoy his vanity. Some indulgence seemed due to a prince, who, beside his other hardships, had lately been wounded in the leg with an arrow, which shattered the bone in such a manner, that splinters were taken out; who, another time, had such a violent blow from a stone upon the nape of his neck, that an alarming darkness covered his eyes, and continued for some time; and yet continued to expose his person without the least precaution. On the contrary, when he had passed the Orexartes, which he supposed to be the Tanais, he not only attacked the Scythians and routed them, but pursued them a hundred furlongs, in spite of what he suffered at that time from a flux.

There the queen of the Amazons came to visit him, as Clitarchus, Policritus, Onesicritus, Antigenes, Ister, and many other historians, report. But Aristobulus, Chares of Theangela*, Ptolemy, Anticlides, Philo the Theban, Philip who was also of Theangela, as well as

* In the Greek text it is *ισαγγελις*, both here and just after. *Εισαγγελις* signifies a gentleman usher; but it does not appear that either Chares or Philip ever held such an office. It is certain *Θαγγελις* is the right reading, from Athenæus, Book vi. p. 271, where he mentions Philip as belonging to Theangela in Caria.

Hécatæus of Eretria, Philip of Chalcis, and Duris of Samos, treat the story as a fiction. And indeed Alexander himself seems to support their opinion. For in one of his letters to Antipater, to whom he gave an exact detail of all that passed, he says, the king of Scythia offered him his daughter in marriage, but he makes not the least mention of the Amazon. Nay, when Onesicritus, many years after, read to Lysimachus, then king, the fourth book of his history, in which this story was introduced, he smiled and said, "Where was I at that time?" But whether we give credit to this particular, or not, is a matter that will neither add to nor lessen our opinion of Alexander.

As he was afraid that many of the Macedonians might dislike the remaining fatigues of the expedition, he left the greatest part of the army in quarters, and entered Hyrcania with a select body of twenty thousand foot and three thousand horse. The purport of his speech upon the occasion was this: "Hitherto the
 " barbarians have seen us only as in a dream. If you
 " should think of returning, after having given Asia
 " the alarm only, they will fall upon you with con-
 " tempt as unenterprising and effeminate. Neverthe-
 " less, such as desire to depart have my consent for it:
 " But, at the same time, I call the gods to witness,
 " that they desert their king when he is conquering
 " the world for the Macedonians, and leave him to
 " the kinder and more faithful attachment of those
 " few friends that will follow his fortune." This is almost word for word the same with what he wrote to Antipater; and he adds, "That he had no sooner
 " done speaking, than they cried, he might lead them
 " to what part of the world he pleased." Thus he tried the disposition of these brave men; and there was no difficulty in bringing the whole body into their sentiments; they followed of course.

After this, he accommodated himself more than ever to the manners of the Asiatics, and at the same time persuaded them to adopt some of the Macedonian
 nian

nian fashions ; for by a mixture of both, he thought an union might be promoted, much better than by force, and his authority maintained when he was at a distance. For the same reason he selected thirty thousand boys, and gave them masters to instruct them in the Grecian literature, as well as to train them to arms in the Macedonian manner.

As for his marriage with Roxana, it was entirely the effect of love. He saw her at an entertainment, and found her charms irresistible. Nor was the match unsuitable to the situation of his affairs. The barbarians placed greater confidence in him on account of that alliance, and his chastity gained their affection ; it delighted them to think, he would not approach the only woman he ever passionately loved, without the sanction of marriage.

Hephæstion and Craterus were his two favourites. The former praised the Persian fashions, and dressed as he did ; the latter adhered to the customs of his own country. He therefore employed Hephæstion in his transactions with the barbarians, and Craterus to signify his pleasure to the Greeks and Macedonians. The one had more of his love, and the other more of his esteem. He was persuaded indeed, and he often said, " Hephæstion loved Alexander, and Craterus " the king." Hence arose private animosities, which did not fail to break out upon occasion. One day, in India, they drew their swords, and came to blows. The friends of each were joining in the quarrel, when Alexander interposed. He told Hephæstion publicly, " he was a fool and a madman, not to be sensible, " that without his master's favour he would be no " thing." He gave Craterus also a severe reprimand in private ; and after having brought them together again, and reconciled them, he swore by Jupiter Ammon, and all the other gods, " That he loved " them more than all the men in the world : but, if " he perceived them at variance again, he would put " them both to death, or him, at least, who began the " quarrel."

“quarrel.” This is said to have had such an effect upon them, that they never expressed any dislike to each other, even in jest, afterwards.

Among the Macedonians, Philotas, the son of Parmenio, had great authority. For he was not only valiant and indefatigable in the field, but, after Alexander, no man loved his friend more, or had a greater spirit of generosity. We are told, that a friend of his one day requested a sum of money, and he ordered it to be given him. The steward said, he had it not to give. “What!” says Philotas, “hast thou not plate, or some other moveable?” However, he affected an ostentation of wealth, and a magnificence in his dress and table, that was above the condition of a subject. Besides, the loftiness of his part was altogether extravagant; not tempered with any natural graces, but formal and uncouth, it exposed him both to hatred and suspicion; insomuch that Parmenio one day said to him, “My son, be less.” He had long been represented in an invidious light to Alexander. When Damascus, with all its riches, was taken, upon the defeat of Darius in Cilicia, among the number of captives that were brought to the camp, there was a beautiful young woman, called Antigone, a native of Pydna, who fell to the share of Philotas. Like a young soldier with a favourite mistress, in his cups he indulged his vanity, and let many indiscreet things escape him; attributing all the great actions of the war to himself and to his father. As for Alexander, he called him a boy, who by their means enjoyed the title of a conqueror. The woman told these things in confidence to one of her acquaintance, and he (as is common) mentioned them to another. At last, they came to the ear of Craterus, who took the woman privately before Alexander. When the king had heard the whole from her own mouth, he ordered her to go as usual to Philotas, but to make her report to him of all that he said. Philotas, ignorant of the snares

that were laid for him, conversed with the woman without the least reserve, and either in his resentment or pride uttered many unbecoming things against Alexander. That prince, though he had sufficient proof against Philotas, kept the matter private, and discovered no tokens of aversion; whether it was that he confided in Parmenio's attachment to him, or whether he was afraid of the power and interest of the family.

About this time, a Macedonian, named Limnus*, a native of Chalæstra, conspired against Alexander's life, and communicated his design to one Nicomachus, a youth that he was fond of; desiring him to take a part in the enterprize. Nicomachus, instead of embracing the proposal, informed his brother Balinus † of the plot, who went immediately to Philotas, and desired him to introduce them to Alexander; assuring him it was upon business of great importance. Whatever might be his reason (for it is not known) Philotas refused them admittance, on pretence that Alexander had other great engagements then upon his hands. They applied again, and met with a denial. By this time they entertained some suspicion of Philotas, and addressed themselves to Metron ‡, who introduced them to the king immediately. They informed him first of the conspiracy of Limnus, and then hinted to him their suspicions of Philotas, on account of his rejecting two several applications.

Alexander was incensed at this negligence; and when he found that the person who was sent to arrest Limnus, had killed him § because he stood upon his

* It should, undoubtedly, be read *Dymnus*, as Q. Curtius and Diodorus have it. Nothing is easier than for a transcriber to change the Δ into a Δ.

† Q. Curtius calls him *Cebalinus*.

‡ In the printed text it is *επιτορας*; but one of the manuscripts gives us *Μετρονας*, which agrees with Curtius. Some name seems to be wanting, and Metron was a considerable officer of the king's household, master of the wardrobe.

§ Other authors say, he killed himself.

defence

defence and refused to be taken, it disturbed him still more, to think he had lost the means of discovering his accomplices. His resentment against Philotas, gave opportunity to those who had long hated that officer, to avow their dislike, and to declare, how much the king was to be blamed in suffering himself to be so easily imposed upon, as to think that Limnus, an insignificant Chalæstean, durst engage, of his own accord, in such a bold design. "No doubt," said they, "he was the agent, or rather the instrument of some superior hand; and the king should trace out the source of the conspiracy among those who have the most interest in having it concealed."

As he began to listen to these discourses, and to give way to his suspicions, it brought innumerable accusations against Philotas, some of them very groundless. He was apprehended and put to the torture, in presence of the great officers of the court. Alexander had placed himself behind the tapestry to hear the examination; and when he found that Philotas bemoaned himself in such a lamentable manner, and had recourse to such mean supplications to Hephæstion, he is reported to have said, "O Philotas, durst thou, with all this unmanly weakness, embark in so great and hazardous an enterprize!"

After the execution of Philotas, he immediately sent orders into Media that Parmenio should be put to death; a man who had a share in most of Philip's conquests, and who was the principal, if not the only one, of the old counsellors, who put Alexander upon his expedition into Asia. Of three sons whom he took over with him, he had seen two slain in battle, and with the third he fell a sacrifice himself. These proceedings made Alexander terrible to his friends, particularly to Antipater. That regent, therefore, sent privately to the Ætolians, and entered into league with them. They had something to fear from Alexander, as well as he, for they had sacked the city of the Œniades; and when the king was informed of it, he

said, "The children of the *Æniades* need not revenge their cause; I will punish the *Ætoli*ans myself."

Soon after this, happened the affair of *Clitus*; which, however simply related, is much more shocking than the execution of *Philotas*. Yet, if we reflect on the occasion and circumstances of the thing, we shall conclude it was a misfortune, rather than a deliberate act, and that *Alexander's* unhappy passion and intoxication only furnished the evil genius of *Clitus* with the means of accomplishing his destruction. It happened in the following manner. The king had some Grecian fruit brought him from on board a vessel, and as he greatly admired its freshness and beauty, he desired *Clitus* to see it and partake of it. It happened that *Clitus* was offering sacrifice that day; but he left it to wait upon the king. Three of the sheep on which the libation was already poured, followed him. The king, informed of that accident, consulted his soothsayers, *Aristander*, and *Cleomantis* the Spartan, upon it; and they assured him it was a very bad omen. He, therefore, ordered the victims to be immediately offered for the health of *Clitus*; the rather, because three days before he had a strange and alarming dream, in which *Clitus* appeared in mourning, sitting by the dead sons of *Parmenio*. However, before the sacrifice was finished, *Clitus* went to sup with the king, who that day had been paying his homage to *Castor* and *Pollux*.

After they were warmed with drinking, somebody began to sing the verses of one *Pranicus*, or, as others will have it, of *Perio*, written in ridicule of the Macedonian officers who had lately been beaten by the barbarians. The older part of the company were greatly offended at it, and condemned both the poet and the singer; but *Alexander*, and those about him, listened with pleasure, and bade him go on. *Clitus*, who by this time had drunk too much, and was naturally rough and froward, could not bear their behaviour. He said, "It was not well done, to make a
" jest,

“ jest, and that among barbarians and enemies, of
 “ Macedonians that were much better men than the
 “ laughers, though they had met with a misfortune.”
 Alexander made answer, “ That Clitus was pleading
 “ his own cause, when he gave cowardice the soft
 “ name of misfortune.” Then Clitus started up, and
 said, “ Yet it was this cowardice that saved you, son
 “ of Jupiter, as you are, when you were turning your
 “ back to the sword of Spithridates. It is by the
 “ blood of the Macedonians and these wounds that
 “ you are grown so great, that you disdain to acknow-
 “ ledge Philip for your father, and will needs pass
 “ yourself for the son of Jupiter Ammon.”

Irritated at this insolence, Alexander replied, “ It
 “ is in this villainous manner thou talkest of me in
 “ all companies, and stirrest up the Macedonians to
 “ mutiny; but dost thou think to enjoy it long?”
 “ And what do we enjoy now?” said Clitus, “ what
 “ reward have we for all our toils?” Do we not envy
 “ those who did not live to see Macedonians bleed un-
 “ der Median rods, or sue to Persians for access to
 “ their king?” While Clitus went on in this rash
 manner, and the king retorted upon him with equal
 bitterness, the old men interposed, and endeavoured
 to allay the flame. Meantime Alexander turned to
 Xenodochus the Cardian, and Artemius the Colopho-
 nian, and said, “ Do not the Greeks appear to you
 “ among the Macedonians like demi-gods among so
 “ many wild beasts?” Clitus, far from giving up
 the dispute, called upon Alexander “ to speak out
 “ what he had to say, or not to invite freemen to his
 “ table, who would declare their sentiments without
 “ reserve. But perhaps,” continued he, “ it were
 “ better to pass your life with barbarians and slaves,
 “ who will worship your Persian girdle and white robe
 “ without scruple.”

Alexander, no longer able to restrain his anger,
 threw an apple at his face, and then looked about

for his sword. But Aristophanes *, one of his guards, had taken it away in time, and the company gathered about him, and intreated him to be quiet. Their remonstrances, however, were vain. He broke from them, and called out, in the Macedonian language, for his guards, which was the signal of a great tumult: At the same time he ordered the trumpeter to sound, and struck him with his fist, upon his discovering an unwillingness to obey. This man was afterwards held in great esteem, because he prevented the whole army from being alarmed.

As Clitus would not make the least submission, his friends, with much ado, forced him out of the room. But he soon returned by another door, repeating, in a bold and disrespectful tone, those verses from the *Andromache* of Euripides:

*Are these your customs? Is it thus that Greece
Rewards her combatants? † Shall one man claim
The trophies won by thousands?*

Then Alexander snatched a spear from one of the guards, and meeting Clitus as he was putting by the curtain, ran him through the body. He fell immediately to the ground, and with a dismal groan expired.

Alexander's rage subsided in a moment; he came to himself; and seeing his friends standing in silent astonishment by him, he hastily drew the spear out of the dead body, and was applying it to his own throat, when his guards seized his hands, and carried him by force into his chamber. He passed that night and the next day in anguish inexpressible; and when he had wasted himself with tears and lamentations, he lay in speechless grief, uttering only now and then a groan. His friends, alarmed at this melancholy silence, forced themselves into the room, and attempted to console

* Q. Curtius and Arrian call him Aristonius.

† This is the speech of Pelus to Menelaus.

him,

him. But he would listen to none of them, except Aristander, who put him in mind of his dream and the ill omen of the sheep, and assured him, that the whole was by the decree of Fate. As he seemed a little comforted, Callisthenes the philosopher, Aristotle's near relation, and Anaxarchus, the Abderite, were called in*. Callisthenes began in a soft and tender manner, endeavouring to relieve him without searching the wound. But Anaxarchus, who had a particular walk in philosophy, and looked upon his fellow-labourers in science with contempt, cried out, on entering the room, "Is this Alexander, upon whom the whole world have their eyes? Can it be he who lies extended on the ground, crying like a slave, in fear of the law and the tongues of men, to whom he should himself be a law, and the measure of right and wrong? What did he conquer for but to rule and to command, not servilely submit to the vain opinions of men: Know you not," continued he, "that Jupiter is represented with Themis and Justice by his side, to shew, that whatever is done by supreme power is right?" By this, and other discourses of the same kind, he alleviated the king's grief, indeed, but made him, withal, more haughty and unjust. At the same time, he insinuated himself into his favour in so extraordinary a manner, that he could no longer bear the conversation of Callisthenes, who before was not very agreeable, on account of his austerity.

One day, a dispute had arisen at table about the seasons and the temperature of the climate. Callisthe-

* Callisthenes was of the city of Olynthus, and had been recommended to Alexander by Aristotle, whose relation he was. He had too much of the spirit of liberty, to be fit for a court. He did not shew it, however, in this instance. Aristotle forewarned him, that if he went on to treat the king with the freedom which his spirit prompted, it would one day be fatal to him.

Ὀλιμμορος δὴ μοι, τίκος, ἔσσιαι ἢ ἀλαρτυς.

"Short date of life, my son, these words forbode."

nes held with those who asserted, that the country they were then in was much colder, and the winters more severe, than in Greece. Anaxarchus maintained the contrary with great obstinacy. Upon which Callisthenes said, " You must needs acknowledge, my friend, " that this is much the colder ; for there you went in " winter in one cloak, and here you cannot sit at ta- " ble without three housing coverlets one over an- " other." This stroke went to the heart of Anaxarchus.

Callisthenes was disagreeable to all the other sophists and flatterers at court ; the more so, because he was followed by the young men on account of his eloquence, and no less acceptable to the old for his regular, grave, self-satisfied course of life. All which confirms what was said to be the cause of his going to Alexander, namely, an ambition to bring his fellow-citizens back, and to repeople the place of his nativity*. His great reputation naturally exposed him to envy ; and he gave some room for calumny himself, by often refusing the king's invitations, and when he did go to his entertainments, by sitting solemn and silent ; which shewed that he could neither commend, nor was satisfied with what passed : insomuch that Alexander said to him one day.

——— *I hate the Sage
Who reaps no fruits of wisdom for himself.*

Once when he was at the king's table with a large company, and the cup came to him, he was desired to pronounce an eulogium upon the Macedonians extempore, which he did with so much eloquence, that the guests, beside their plaudits, rose up and covered him with their garlands. Upon this, Alexander said, in the words of Euripides,

* Olynthus was one of the cities destroyed by Philip ; whether Alexander permitted the philosopher to re-establish it is uncertain ; but Cicero informs us, that, in his time, it was a flourishing place. *Vide Or. iii. in Verrem.*

When

When great the theme 'tis easy to excel.

“ But shew us now,” continued he, “ the power of your rhetoric, in speaking against the Macedonians, that they may see their faults, and amend.”

Then the orator took the other side, and spoke with equal fluency against the encroachments and other faults of the Macedonians, as well as against the divisions among the Greeks, which he shewed to be the only cause of the great increase of Philip's power; concluding with these words,

*Amidst sedition's waves
The worst of mortals may emerge to honour.*

By this he drew upon himself the implacable hatred of the Macedonians, and Alexander said, “ He gave not, in this case, a specimen of his eloquence, but of his malevolence.”

Hermippus assures us, that Stroibus, a person employed by Callisthenes to read to him, gave this account of the matter to Aristotle. He adds, that Callisthenes perceiving the king's aversion to him, repeated this verse two or three times at parting.

Patrocles, thy superior is no more.

It was not, therefore, without reason, that Aristotle said of Callisthenes, “ His eloquence, indeed, is great; but he wants common sense.” He not only refused, with all the firmness of a philosopher, to pay his respects to Alexander by prostration, but stood forth singly, and uttered in public many grievances which the best and oldest of the Macedonians durst not reflect upon but in secret, though they were as much displeas'd at them as he. By preventing the prostration, he sav'd the Greeks, indeed, from a great dishonour, and Alexander from a greater; but he ruin'd himself; because his manner was such, that he seem'd rather desirous to compel than to persuade.

Chares

Chares of Mitylene tells us, that Alexander, at one of his entertainments, after he had drank, reached the cup to one of his friends. That friend had no sooner received it than he rose up, and turning towards the hearth *, where stood the domestic gods, to drink, he worshipped, and then kissed Alexander. This done, he took his place again at table. All the guests did the same in their order, except Callisthenes. When it came to his turn, he drank, and then approached to give the king a kiss, who being engaged in some discourse with Hephæstion, happened not to mind him. But Demetrius, surnamed Phidon, cried out, "Receive not his kiss; for he alone has not adored you." Upon which, Alexander refused it, and Callisthenes said aloud, "Then I return one kiss the poorer."

A coldness, of course, ensued: but many other things contributed to his fall. In the first place, Hephæstion's report was believed, that Callisthenes had promised him to adore the king, and broke his word. In the next place, Lyfimachus and Agnon attacked him, and said, "The sophist went about with as much pride as if he had demolished a tyranny, and the young men followed him, as the only free man among so many thousands." These things, upon the discovery of Hermolaus's plot against Alexander, gave an air of probability to what was alleged against Callisthenes. His enemies said, Hermolaus enquired of him, "By what means he might become the most famous man in the world?" and that he answered, "By killing the most famous." They farther asserted, that by way of encouraging him to the attempt, he bade him "not be afraid of the golden bed, but

* Dacier is of opinion, that, by this action, the flatterer wanted to insinuate, that Alexander ought to be reckoned among the domestic gods. But, as the king sat in that part of the room where the *Penates* were, we rather think it was a vile excuse to the man's own conscience for this act of religious worship, because their position made it dubious, whether it was intended for Alexander or for them.

“remember he had to do with a man who had suffered both by sickness and by wounds.”

Neither Hermolaus, however, nor any of his accomplices, made any mention of Callisthenes amidst the extremities of torture. Nay, Alexander himself, in the account he immediately gave of the plot to Craterus, Attalus, and Alcetas, writes, “that the young men, when put to the torture, declared, it was entirely their own enterprise, and that no man besides was privy to it.” Yet afterwards, in a letter to Antipater, he affirms that Callisthenes was as guilty as the rest. “The Macedonians,” says he, “have stoned the young men to death. As for the sophist, I will punish him myself, and those that sent him, too: nor shall the towns that harboured the conspirators escape.” In which he plainly discovers his aversion to Aristotle, by whom Callisthenes was brought up, as a relation; for he was the son of Hero, Aristotle’s niece. His death is variously related. Some say, Alexander ordered him to be hanged; others, that he fell sick and died in chains. And Chares writes, that he was kept seven months in prison, in order to be tried in full council in the presence of Aristotle; but that he died of excessive corpulency and the lousy disease, at the time that Alexander was wounded by the Malli Oxydracæ in India. This happened, however, at a later period than that we are upon.

In the mean time, Demeratus the Corinthian, though far advanced in years, was ambitious of going to see Alexander. Accordingly he took the voyage, and when he beheld him, he said, “The Greeks fell short of a great pleasure, who did not live to see Alexander upon the throne of Darius.” But he did not live to enjoy the king’s friendship. He sickened and died soon after. The king, however, performed his obsequies in the most magnificent manner; and the army threw up for him a monument of earth of great extent, and fourscore cubits high. His ashes

asses were carried to the sea-shore in a chariot and four, with the richest ornaments.

When Alexander was upon the point of setting out for India, he saw his troops were so laden with spoils that they were unfit to march. Therefore, early in the morning that he was to take his departure, after the carriages were assembled, he first set fire to his own baggage and that of his friends; and then gave orders that the rest should be served in the same manner. The resolution appeared more difficult to take, than it was to execute. Few were displeas'd at it, and numbers received it with acclamations of joy. They freely gave part of their equipage to such as were in need, and burnt and destroyed whatever was superfluous. This greatly encouraged and fortified Alexander in his design. Besides, by this time he was become inflexibly severe in punishing offences. Menander, though one of his friends, he put to death, for refusing to stay in a fortress he had given him the charge of; and one of the barbarians, named Osodates, he shot dead with an arrow, for the crime of rebellion.

About this time a sheep yeaned a lamb with the perfect form and colour of a *tiara* upon its head, on each side of which were testicles. Looking upon the prodigy with horror, he employed the Chaldeans, who attended him for such purposes, to purify him by their expiations. He told his friends, on this occasion, "That he was more troubled on their account than his own; for he was afraid that after his death fortune would throw the empire into the hands of some obscure and weak man." A better omen, however, soon dissipated his fears. A Macedonian named Proxenus, who had the charge of the king's equipage, on opening the ground by the river Oxus*, in order to pitch his master's tent; discovered a spring of a gross oily liquor; which, after the surface was

* Strabo (lib. ii.) ascribes the same properties to the ground near the river Ochus. Indeed the Ochus and the Oxus unite their streams, and flow together into the Caspian sea.

taken off, became perfectly clear, and neither in taste nor smell differed from real oil, nor was inferior to it in smoothness and brightness, though there were no olives in that country. It is said, indeed, that the water of the Oxus is of so unctuous a quality, that it makes the skins of those who bath in it smooth and shining*.

It appears, from a letter of Alexander's to Antipater, that he was greatly delighted with this incident, and reckoned it one of the happiest presages the gods had afforded him. The soothsayers said, it betokened, that the expedition would prove a glorious one, but at the same time laborious and difficult, because heaven has given men oil to refresh them after their labours. Accordingly he met with great dangers in the battles that he fought, and received very considerable wounds: But his army suffered most by want of necessaries and by the climate. For his part, he was ambitious to shew that courage can triumph over fortune, and magnanimity over force: he thought nothing invincible to the brave, or impregnable to the bold †. Pursuant to this opinion, when he besieged Sissimethres upon a rock extremely steep and apparently inaccessible ‡, and saw his men greatly discouraged at the enterprize, he asked Oxyartes, "Whether Sissimethres were a man of spirit:" and being answered, "That he was timorous and dastardly," he said, "You inform me the rock may be taken, since there is no strength in its

* Pliny tells us, that the surface of these rivers was a consistence of salt, and that the waters flowed under it as under a crust of ice. The salt consistence he imputes to the desiccations from the neighbouring mountains, but he says nothing of the unctuous quality of these waters mentioned by Plutarch. Nat. Hist. lib. xxxi.

† One of the manuscripts, instead of *εὐλαμικός*, has *αἰολικός*. Then the latter member of the sentence would be, *nor secure to the timorous*.

‡ This strong hold was situated in Bactriana. Strabo says, it was fifteen furlongs high, as many in compass, and that the top was a fertile plain, capable of maintaining five hundred. It was in Bactriana that Alexander married Roxana, the daughter of Oxyartes.

“ defen-

“defender.” In fact, he found means to intimidate Sifimethres, and made himself master of the fort.

In the siege of another fort, situated in a place equally steep, among the young Macedonians that were to give the assault there was one called Alexander; and the king took occasion to say to him, “You must behave gallantly, my friend, to do justice to your name.” He was informed afterwards that the young man fell as he was distinguishing himself in a glorious manner, and he laid it much to heart.

When he sat down before Nyfa*, the Macedonians made some difficulty of advancing to the attack, on account of the depth of the river that washed its walls, till Alexander said, “What a wretch am I, that I did not learn to swim,” and was going to ford it with his shield in his hand. After the first assault, while the troops were refreshing themselves, ambassadors came with an offer to capitulate; and along with them were deputies from some other places. They were surprized to see him in armour without any pomp or ceremony; and their astonishment increased, when he bade the oldest of the ambassadors, named Acuphis, take the sofa that was brought for himself. Acuphis, struck with a benignity of reception so far beyond his hopes, asked what they must do to be admitted into his friendship? Alexander answered, “It must be on condition that they appoint you their governor, and send me a hundred of their best men for hostages.” Acuphis smiled at this, and said, “I should govern better if you would take the worst, instead of the best.”

It is said, the dominions of Taxiles, in India†, were as large as Egypt; they afforded excellent pasturage too, and were the most fertile in all respects. As he

* Arrian calls it, Nyffa; so indeed does the Vulcob. MS. That historian places it near Mount Meris, and adds, that it was built by Dionysus, or Bacchus. Hence it had the name of Dionysiopolis. It is now called Nerg.

† Between the Indus and the Hydaspes.

was a man of great prudence, he waited on Alexander, and after the first compliments, thus addressed him :
 “ What occasion is there for wars between you and
 “ me, if you are not come to take from us our water
 “ and other necessaries of life ; the only things that
 “ reasonable men will take up arms for ? As to gold
 “ and silver and other possessions, if I am richer than
 “ you, I am willing to oblige you with part ; if I am
 “ poorer, I have no objection to sharing in your
 “ bounty.” Charmed with his frankness, Alexander
 took his hand, and answered, “ Think you, then,
 “ with all this civility, to escape without a conflict ?
 “ You are much deceived, if you do. I will dispute
 “ it with you to the last, but it shall be in favours and
 “ benefits ; for I will not have you exceed me in ge-
 “ nerosity.” Therefore, after having received great
 presents from him, and made greater, he said to him
 one evening, “ I drink to you, Taxiles, and as sure as
 “ you pledge me, you shall have a thousand talents.”
 His friends were offended at his giving away such im-
 mense sums, but it made many of the barbarians look
 upon him with a kinder eye.

The most warlike of the Indians used to fight for
 pay. Upon this invasion they defended the cities that
 hired them, with great vigour, and Alexander suffered
 by them not a little. To one of the cities he granted
 an honourable capitulation ; and yet seized the merce-
 naries, as they were upon their march homewards, and
 put them all to the sword. This is the only blot in
 his military conduct ; all his other proceedings were
 agreeable to the laws of war, and worthy of a king*.

* It was just and lawful, it seems, to go about harassing and de-
 stroying those nations that had never offended him ; and upon which
 he had no claim, except that avowed by the northern barbarians,
 when they entered Italy, namely, that the weak must submit to the
 strong. Indeed, those barbarians were much honest men, for they
 had another, and a better plea ; they went to seek bread.

The philosophers gave him no less trouble than the mercenaries, by endeavouring to fix a mark of infamy upon those princes that declared for him, and by exciting the free nations to take up arms; for which reason he hanged many of them.

As to his war with Porus, we have an account of it in his own letters. According to them, the river Hydaspes was between the two armies, and Porus drew up his elephants on the banks opposite the enemy, with their heads towards the stream to guard it. Alexander caused a great noise and bustle to be made every day in his camp, that the barbarians, being accustomed to it, might not be so ready to take the alarm*. This done, he took the advantage of a dark and stormy night, with part of his infantry, and a select body of cavalry, to gain a little island in the river, at some distance from the Indians. When he was there, he and his troops were attacked with a most violent wind and rain, accompanied with dreadful thunder and lightning. But, notwithstanding this hurricane, in which he saw several of his men perish by the lightning, he advanced from the island to the opposite bank. The Hydaspes, swelled with the rain, by its violence and rapidity made a breach on that side, which received water enough to form a bay, so that when he came to land, he found the bank extremely slippery, and the ground broken and undermined by the current. On this occasion he is said to have uttered that celebrated saying, "Will you believe, my Athenian friends, what dangers I undergo, to have you the heralds of my fame?" The last particular we have from Onesicritus: but Alexander himself

* The Latin and French translators have both mistaken the sense of this passage.—*Ἐβίβλησαν τοὶ Βαρβάρους μὴ φοβισθῆναι*, is certainly capable of the sense we have given it, and the context requires it should be so understood. See Arrian (l. v. ed. St. p. 108. A. and B.) in support of that construction. See also Q. Curtius, l. viii. p. 263. ed. Am.

only says, they quitted their boats, and, armed as they were, waded up the breach breast high ; and that when they were landed, he advanced with the horse twenty furlongs before the foot, concluding that if the enemy attacked him with their cavalry, he should be greatly their superior, and that if they made a movement with their infantry, his would come up time enough to receive them. Nor did he judge amiss. The enemy detached against him a thousand horse and sixty armed chariots, and he defeated them with ease. The chariots he took, and killed four hundred of the cavalry upon the spot. By this, Porus understood that Alexander himself had passed the river, and therefore brought up his whole army, except what appeared necessary to keep the rest of the Macedonians from making good their passage. Alexander considering the force of the elephants, and the enemy's superior numbers, did not choose to engage them in front, but attacked the left wing himself, while Coenus, according to his orders, fell upon the right. Both wings being broken, retired to the elephants in the centre, and rallied there. The combat then was of a more mixed kind ; but maintained with such obstinacy, that it was not decided until the eighth hour of the day. This description of the battle we have from the conqueror himself, in one of his epistles.

Most historians agree, that Porus was four cubits and a palm high, and that though the elephant he rode was one of the largest, his stature and bulk were such, that he appeared but proportionably mounted. This elephant, during the whole battle, gave extraordinary proofs of his sagacity and care of the king's person. As long as that prince was able to fight, he defended him with great courage, and repulsed all assailants ; and when he perceived him ready to sink under the multitude of darts and the wounds with which he was covered, to prevent his falling off, he kneeled down in the softest manner, and with his proboscis gently drew every dart out of his body.

When Porus was taken prisoner, Alexander asked him, "How he desired to be treated?" He answered, "Like a king." "And have you nothing else to request," replied Alexander. "No," said he, "every thing is comprehended in the word king." Alexander not only restored to him his own dominions immediately, which he was to govern as his lieutenant, but added very extensive territories to them; for having subdued a free country, which contained fifteen nations, five thousand* considerable cities, and villages in proportion, he bestowed it on Porus. Another country, three times as large, he gave to Philip, one of his friends, who was also to act there as his lieutenant.

In the battle with Porus, Bucephalus received several wounds, of which he died some time after. This is the account most writers give us: But Onesicritus says, he died of age and fatigue, for he was thirty years old. Alexander shewed as much regret, as if he had lost a faithful friend and companion. He esteemed him, indeed, as such; and built a city near the Hydaspes, in the place where he was buried, which he called, after him, Bucephalia. He is also reported to have built a city, and called it Peritas, in memory of a dog of that name, which he had brought up and was very fond of. This particular, Sotio says, he had from Potamo of Lesbos.

The combat with Porus abated the spirit of the Macedonians, and made them resolved to proceed no farther in India. It was with difficulty they had defeated an enemy who brought only twenty thousand foot and two thousand horse into the field; and therefore they opposed Alexander with great firmness, when

* Some transcriber seems to have given us the number of inhabitants in one city for the number of cities. Arrian's account is this: "He took thirty-seven cities, the least of which contained five thousand inhabitants, and several of them above ten thousand. He took also a great number of villages not less populous than the cities, and gave the government of the country to Porus."

He insisted that they should pass the Ganges*, which, they were informed, was thirty-two furlongs in breadth, and in depth a hundred fathom. The opposite shore too was covered with numbers of squadrons, battalions, and elephants. For the kings of the Gandarites and Præsians were said to be waiting for them there, with eighty thousand horse, two hundred thousand foot, eight thousand chariots, and six thousand elephants trained to war. Nor is this number at all magnified: For Androcottus, who reigned not long after, made Seleucus a present of five hundred † elephants at one time, and with an army of six hundred thousand men traversed India; and conquered the whole.

Alexander's grief and indignation at this refusal were such, that at first he shut himself up in his tent, and lay prostrate on the ground, declaring "he did not thank the Macedonians in the least for what they had done, if they would not pass the Ganges; for he considered a retreat as no other than an acknowledgment that he was overcome." His friends omitted nothing that might comfort him; and at last their remonstrances, together with the cries and tears of the soldiers, who were suppliants at his door, melted him, and prevailed on him to return. However, he first contrived many vain and sophistical things to serve the purposes of fame; among which were arms much bigger than his men could use, and higher mangers; and heavier bits than his horses required, left scattered up and down. He built also great altars, for which the Præsians still retain great veneration, and their kings cross the Ganges every year to offer sacrifices in the Grecian manner upon them. Androcottus, who was then very young, had a fight of Alexander, and he is reported to have often said afterwards, "That

* The Ganges is the largest of all the rivers in the three continents, the Indus the second, the Nile the third, and the Danube the fourth.

† Dacier says *six thousand*, but does not mention his authority. Perhaps it was only a slip in the writing, or in the printing.

“ Alexander was within a little of making himself
 “ master of all the country ; with such hatred and
 “ contempt was the reigning prince looked upon, on
 “ account of his profligacy of manners, and mean-
 “ ness of birth.”

Alexander, in his march from thence, formed a design to see the ocean ; for which purpose he caused a number of row-boats and rafts to be constructed, and, upon them, fell down the rivers at his leisure. Nor was this navigation unattended with hostilities. He made several descents by the way, and attacked the adjacent cities, which were all forced to submit to his victorious arms. However, he was very near being cut in pieces by the Malli, who were called the most warlike people in India. He had driven some of them from the wall with his missile weapons, and was the first man that ascended it. But presently after he was up, the scaling ladder broke. Finding himself * and his small company much galled by the darts of the barbarians from below, he poised himself, and leaped down into the midst of the enemy. By good fortune he fell upon his feet ; and the barbarians were so astonished at the flashing of his arms as he came down, that they thought they beheld lightning, or some supernatural splendour issuing from his body. At first, therefore, they drew back and dispersed. But when they had recollected themselves, and saw him attended only by two of his guards, they attacked him hand to hand, and wounded him through his armour with their swords and spears, notwithstanding the valour with which he fought. One of them standing farther off, drew an arrow with such strength, that it made its way through his cuirass, and entered the ribs under the breast. Its force was so great, that he gave back and was brought upon his knees, and the barbarian ran up with his drawn scimitar to dispatch him.

* The word *ολυγος* implies, that he was not quite alone ; and it appears immediately after that he was not.

Peucestas and Limnæus * placed themselves before him, but the one was wounded and the other killed. Peucestas, who survived, was still making some resistance, when Alexander recovered himself and laid the barbarian at his feet. The king, however, received new wounds, and at last had such a blow from a bludgeon upon his neck, that he was forced to support himself by the wall, and there stood with his face to the enemy. The Macedonians, who by this time had got in, gathered about him, and carried him off to his tent.

His senses were gone, and it was the current report in the army that he was dead. When they had, with great difficulty, sawed off the shaft, which was of wood, and with equal trouble had taken off the cuirass, they proceeded to extract the head, which was three fingers broad and four long, and stuck fast in the bone. He fainted under the operation, and was very near expiring; but when the head was got out, he came to himself. Yet, after the danger was over, he continued weak, and a long time confined himself to a regular diet, attending solely to the cure of his wound. The Macedonians could not bear to be so long deprived of the sight of their king; they assembled in a tumultuous manner about his tent. When he perceived this, he put on his robe, and made his appearance; but as soon as he had sacrificed to the gods, he retired again. As he was on his way to the place of his destination, though carried † in a litter by the water side, he subdued a large tract of land and many respectable cities.

In the course of this expedition, he took ten of the *Gymnosophists* †, who had been principally concerned

* Q. Curtius calls him *Timæus*.

† *γυμνοσώφισται*.

‡ These philosophers, so called from their going naked, were divided into two sects, the *Brachmani* and the *Germani*. The *Brachmani* were most esteemed, because there was a consistency in their principles. Apuleius tells us, that not only the scholars, but the younger pupils, were assembled about dinner-time, and examined what good they had done that day; and such as could not point out some act of humanity, or useful pursuit, that they had been engaged in, were not allowed any dinner.

in instigating Sabbas to revolt, and had brought numberless other troubles upon the Macedonians. As these ten were reckoned the most acute and concise in their answers, he put the most difficult questions to them that could be thought of, and at the same time declared, he would put the first person that answered wrong to death, and after him all the rest. The oldest man among them was to be judge.

He demanded of the first, "Which were most numerous, the living or the dead?" He answered, "The living; for the dead no longer exist *."

The second was asked, "Whether the earth or the sea produceth the largest animals?" He answered, "The earth; for the sea is part of it."

The third, "Which was the craftiest of all animals?" "That," said he, "with which man is not yet acquainted †."

The fourth, "What was his reason for persuading Sabbas to revolt?" "Because," said he, "I wished him either to live with honour, or to die as a coward deserves †."

The fifth had this question put to him, "Which do you think oldest, the day or the night?" He answered, "The day, by one day." As the king appeared surprised at this solution, the philosopher told him, "Abstruse questions must have abstruse answers."

* They did not hold the mortality, but the transmigration of the soul.

† This we suppose to mean man himself, as not being acquainted with himself.

‡ One of the manuscripts gives us *καλῶς* here, instead of *κακῶς*. Then the sense will be, "Because I wished him either to live or die with honour." Which we cannot but prefer; for he who has regard enough for a man to wish him to live with honour, cannot be so envious as to wish him to die with dishonour. At the same time we agree with Moses Du Soul, that some archness is intended in most of the answers; but what archness is there in this, as it is commonly translated, *Because I wished him either to live honourably, or to die miserably?*

Then

Then addressing himself to the sixth, he demanded, "What were the best means for a man to make himself loved?" He answered, "If possessed of great power, do not make yourself feared."

The seventh was asked, "How a man might become a god?" He answered, "By doing what is impossible for man to do."

The eighth, "Which is strongest, life or death?" "Life," said he, "because it bears so many evils."

The last question that he put, was, "How long is it good for a man to live?" "As long," said the philosopher, "as he does not prefer death to life."

Then turning to the judge, he ordered him to give sentence. The old man said, "In my opinion they have all answered one worse than another." "If this is thy judgment," said Alexander, "thou shalt die first." "No," replied the philosopher; "not except you choose to break your word: for you declared the man that answered worst should first suffer."

The king loaded them with presents and dismissed them. After which he sent Onesicritus, a disciple of Diogenes, to the other Indian sages who were of most reputation, and lived a retired life, to desire them to come to him. Onesicritus tells us, Calanus treated him with great insolence and harshness, bidding him strip himself naked, if he desired to hear any of his doctrine: "You shall not hear me on any other condition," said he, "though you came from Jupiter himself." Dandamis behaved with more civility; and when Onesicritus had given him an account of Pythagoras, Socrates, and Diogenes, he said, "They appeared to him to have been men of genius, but to have lived with too passive a regard to the laws."

Others say, Dandamis entered into no discourse with the messenger, but only asked, "Why Alexander had taken so long a journey?" As to Calanus, it is cer-

tain Taxiles prevailed with him to go to Alexander. His true name was Sphines; but because he addressed them with the word *Cale*, which is the Indian form of salutation, the Greek called him Calanus. This philosopher, we are told, presented Alexander with a good image of his empire. He laid a dry and shrivelled hide before him, and first trode upon the edges of it. This he did all round; and as he trode on one side, it started up on the other. At last, he fixed his feet on the middle, and then it lay still. By this emblem he shewed him, that he should fix his residence, and plant his principal force, in the heart of his empire, and not wander to the extremities.

Alexander spent seven months in falling down the rivers to the ocean. When he arrived there, he embarked, and sailed to an island which he called Scilouftis*, but others call it Piltoucis. There he landed, and sacrificed to the gods. He likewise considered the nature of the sea and of the coast, as far as it was accessible. And after having besought Heaven, "That no man might ever reach beyond the bounds of his expedition," he prepared to set out on his way back. He appointed Nearchus admiral, and Onesicritus chief pilot, and ordered his fleet to sail round, keeping India on the right. With the rest of his forces he returned by land through the country of the Orites; in which he was reduced to such extremities, and lost such numbers of men, that he did not bring back from India above a fourth part of the army he entered it with, which was no less than a hundred and twenty thousand foot and fifteen thousand horse. Violent distempers, ill diet, and excessive heats destroyed multitudes; but, famine made still greater ravages. For it was a barren and uncultivated country; the natives lived miserably, having nothing to subsist on but a few bad sheep, which used to feed on the fish thrown up by the

* Arrian calls it Cilutta. Here they first observed the ebbing and flowing of the sea, which surprised them not a little.

sea;

sea ; consequently they were poor, and their flesh of a bad flavour.

With much difficulty he traversed this country in sixty days, and then arrived in Gedrosia. There he found provisions in abundance ; for besides that the land is fertile in itself, the neighbouring princes and grandees supplied him. After he had given his army some time to refresh themselves, he marched in Carmania for seven days in a kind of bacchanalian procession. His chariot, which was very magnificent, was drawn by eight horses. Upon it was placed a lofty platform, where he and his principal friends revelled day and night. This carriage was followed by many others, some covered with rich tapestry and purple hangings, and others shaded with branches of trees fresh gathered and flourishing. In these were the rest of the king's friends and generals, crowned with flowers and exhilarated with wine.

In this whole company there was not to be seen a buckler, a helmet, or spear ; but, instead of them, cups, flagons and goblets. These the soldiers dipped in huge vessels of wine, and drank to each other, some as they marched along, and others seated at tables, which were placed at proper distances on the way. The whole country resounded with flutes, clarionets and songs, and with the dances and riotous frolics of the women. This disorderly and dissolute march was closed with a very immodest figure *, and with all the licentious ribaldry of the bacchanals, as if Bacchus himself had been present to carry on the debauch.

When Alexander arrived at the royal palace of Gedrosia †, he gave his army time to refresh them-

* M. le Fevre (in his notes upon Anacreon) seems to have restored the genuine reading of this passage, by proposing to read, instead of τὰς φιάλαις, ὁ Φαλαξ, or Φαλλος.

† Gedrosia is certainly corrupt. Probably we should read Carmania. Βασιλευς signifies a capital city, as well as a royal palace, because princes generally reside in their capitals.

selfes again, and entertained them with feasts and public spectacles. At one of these, in which the choruses disputed the prize of dancing, he appeared inflamed with wine. His favourite Bagoas happening to win it, crossed the theatre in his habit of ceremony, and seated himself by the king. The Macedonians expressed their satisfaction with loud plaudits, and called out to the king to kiss him, with which at last he complied.

Nearchus joined him again here, and he was so much delighted with the account of his voyage, that he formed a design to sail in person from the Euphrates with a great fleet, circle the coast of Arabia and Africa, and enter the Mediterranean by the pillars of Hercules. For this purpose, he constructed at Thapfacus a number of vessels of all sorts, and collected mariners and pilots. But the report of the difficulties he had met with in his Indian expedition, particularly in his attack of the Malli, his great loss of men in the country of the Orites, and the supposition he would never return alive from the voyage he now meditated, excited his new subjects to revolt, and put his generals and governors of provinces upon displaying their injustice, insolence, and avarice. In short, the whole empire was in commotion, and ripe for rebellion. Olympias and Cleopatra, leaguings against Antipater, had seized his hereditary dominions, and divided them between them. Olympias took Epirus, and Cleopatra Macedonia. The tidings of which being brought to Alexander, he said, "His mother had considered right; for the Macedonians would never bear to be governed by a woman."

In consequence of this unsettled state of things, he sent Nearchus again to sea, having determined to carry the war into the maritime provinces. Meantime he marched in person to chastise his lieutenants for their misdemeanors. Oxyartes, one of the sons of Abulites, he killed with his own hand, by a stroke of his javelin. Abulites had laid in no provisions for him; he

he had only collected three thousand talents in money. Upon his presenting this, Alexander bade him offer it to his horses; and as they did not touch it, he said, "Of what use will this provision now be to me?" and immediately ordered Abulites to be taken into custody.

The first thing he did after he entered Persia, was to give this money to the matrons according to the ancient custom of the kings, who, upon their return from any excursion to their Persian dominions, used to give every woman a piece of gold. For this reason, several of them, we are told, made it a rule to return but seldom; and Ochus never did: he banished himself to save his money.

Having found the tomb of Cyrus broken open, he put the author of that sacrilege to death, though a native of Pella, and a person of some distinction. His name was Polymachus. After he had read the epitaph, which was in the Persian language, he ordered it to be inscribed also in Greek. It was as follows: O MAN, WHOSOEVER THOU ART, AND WHENCE-SOEVER THOU COMEST (FOR COME I KNOW THOU WILT), I AM CYRUS, THE FOUNDER OF THE PERSIAN EMPIRE. ENVY ME NOT THE LITTLE EARTH THAT COVERS MY BODY. Alexander was much affected at these words, which placed before him, in so strong a light, the uncertainty and vicissitude of things.

It was here that Calanus, after having been disordered a little while with the cholic, desired to have his funeral pile erected. He approached it on horseback, offered up his prayers to Heaven, poured the libations upon himself, cut off part of his hair*, and threw it in the fire; and before he ascended the pile, took leave of the Macedonians, desiring them to spend the day in jollity and drinking with the king; "for I shall see him," said he, "in a little time at Babylon." So saying, he stretched himself upon the pile, and co-

* As some of the hair used to be cut from the forehead of victims.

vered himself up. Nor did he move at the approach of the flames, but remained in the same posture till he had finished his sacrifice according to the custom of the sages of his country. Many years after, another Indian did the same before Augustus Cæsar at Athens, whose tomb is shewn to this day, and called *the Indian's tomb*.

Alexander, as soon as he retired from the funeral pile, invited his friends and officers to supper, and, to give life to the caroual, promised that the man who drank most should be crowned for his victory. Promachus drank four measures of wine *, and carried off the crown, which was worth a talent, but survived it only three days. The rest of the guests, as Chares tells us, drank to such a degree, that forty-one of them lost their lives, the weather coming upon them extremely cold during their intoxication.

When he arrived at Susa, he married his friends to Persian ladies. He set them the example, by taking Statira, the daughter of Darius, to wife, and then distributed among his principal officers the virgins of highest quality. As for those Macedonians who had already married in Persia, he made a general entertainment in commemoration of their nuptials. It is said that no less than nine thousand guests sat down, and yet he presented each with a golden cup for performing the libation. Every thing else was conducted with the utmost magnificence; he even paid off all their debts; inasmuch that the whole expence amounted to nine thousand eight hundred and seventy talents.

An officer who had but one eye, named Antigenes, put himself upon this list of debtors, and produced a person who declared he was so much in his books. Alexander paid the money; but afterwards discovering the fraud, in his anger forbid him the court, and took away his commission. There was no fault to be found with him as a soldier. He had distinguished himself in his youth under Philip, at the siege

* About fourteen quarts. The *chaus* was six pints nine tenths.

of Perinthus, where he was wounded in the eye with a dart shot from one of the engines; and yet he would neither suffer it to be taken out, nor quit the field, till he had repulsed the enemy, and forced them to retire into the town. The poor wretch could not bear the disgrace he had now brought upon himself; his grief and despair were so great, that it was apprehended he would put an end to his own life. To prevent such a catastrophe, the king forgave him, and ordered him to keep the money.

The thirty thousand boys, whom he left under proper masters, were now grown so much, and made so handsome an appearance, and, what was of more importance, had gained such an activity and address in their exercises, that he was greatly delighted with them. But it was matter of uneasiness to the Macedonians; they were apprehensive that the king would have less regard for them. Therefore, when he gave the invalids their route to the sea, in order to their return, the whole army considered it as an injurious and oppressive measure: "He has availed himself," said they, "beyond all reason, of their services, and now he sends them back with disgrace, and turns them upon the hands of their country and their parents, in a very different condition from that in which he received them. Why does not he dismiss us all? Why does not he reckon all the Macedonians incapable of service, now he has got this body of young dancers? Let him go with them, and conquer the world."

Alexander, incensed at this mutinous behaviour, loaded them with reproaches; and ordering them off, took Persians for his guards, and filled up other offices with them. When they saw their king with these new attendants, and themselves rejected and spurned with dishonour, they were greatly humbled. They lamented their fate to each other, and were almost frantic with jealousy and anger. At last, coming to themselves, they repaired to the king's tent, without

without arms, in one thin garment only; and with tears and lamentations delivered themselves up to his vengeance; desiring he would treat them as ungrateful men deserved.

He was softened with their complaints, but would not appear to hearken to them. They stood two days and nights bemoaning themselves in this manner, and calling for their dear master. The third day he came out to them; and when he saw their forlorn condition, he wept a long time. After a gentle rebuke for their misbehaviour, he condescended to converse with them in a freer manner; and such as were unfit for service, he sent home with magnificent presents. At the same time he signified his pleasure to Antipater, that at all public diversions they should have the most honourable seats in the theatres, and wear chaplets of flowers there; and that the children of those who had lost their lives in his service, should have their fathers' pay continued to them.

When he came to Ecbatana in Media, and had dispatched the most urgent affairs, he employed himself again in the celebration of games and other public solemnities, for which purpose three thousand artificers, lately arrived from Greece, were very serviceable to him. But unfortunately Hephæstion fell sick of a fever in the midst of this festivity. As a young man and a soldier, he could not bear to be kept to strict diet; and taking the opportunity to dine when his physician Glaucus was gone to the theatre, he ate a roasted fowl, and drank a flagon of wine made as cold as possible; in consequence of which he grew worse, and died a few days after.

Alexander's grief on this occasion exceeded all bounds. He immediately ordered the horses and mules to be shorn, that they might have their share in the mourning, and with the same view pulled down the battlements of the neighbouring cities. The poor physician he crucified. He forbade the flute and all other music in his camp for a long time. This con-
 tinued

tirtued till he received an oracle from Jupiter Ammon, which enjoined him to revere Hephæstion, and sacrifice to him as a demi-god. After this he sought to relieve his sorrow by hunting, or rather by war, for his game were men. In this expedition he conquered the Cassians, and put all that were come to years of puberty to the sword. This he called a sacrifice to the *manes* of Hephæstion.

He designted to lay out ten thousand talents upon his tomb and the monumental ornaments, and that the workmanship, as well as design, should exceed the expence, great as it was. He therefore desired to have Stasicrates for his architect, whose genius promised a happy boldness, and grandeur in every thing that he planned. This was the man who had told him, some time before, that mount Athos in Thrace was most capable of being cut into a human figure; and that, if he had but his orders, he would convert it into a statue for him, the most lasting and conspicuous in the world: a statue, which should have a city with ten thousand inhabitants in its left hand, and a river that flowed to the sea with a strong current in its right. He did not, however, embrace that proposal, though at that time he busied himself with his architects in contriving and laying out even more absurd and expensive designs.

As he was advancing towards Babylon, Nearchus, who was returned from his expedition on the ocean, and come up the Euphrates, declared he had been applied to by some Chaldæans, who were strongly of opinion that Alexander should not enter Babylon. But he slighted the warning, and continued his march. Upon his approach to the walls, he saw a great number of crows fighting, some of which fell down dead at his feet. Soon after this, being informed, that Apollodorus, governor of Babylon, had sacrificed, in order to consult the gods concerning him, he sent for Pythagoras the diviner; and, as he did not deny the fact, asked him how the entrails of the victim appeared.

ed. Pythagoras answered, the liver was without a head. "A terrible preface, indeed!" said Alexander. He let Pythagoras go with impunity: but by this time he was sorry he had not listened to Nearchus. He lived mostly in his pavilion without the walls, and diverted himself with sailing up and down the Euphrates. For there had happened several other ill omens that much disturbed him. One of the largest and handsomest lions that were kept in Babylon, was attacked and kicked to death by an ass. One day he stripped for the refreshment of oil, and to play at ball: after the diversion was over, the young men who played with him, going to fetch his clothes, beheld a man sitting in profound silence on his throne, dressed in the royal robes, with the diadem upon his head. They demanded who he was, and it was a long time before he would answer. At last, coming to himself, he said, "My name is Dionysius, and I am a native of Messene. Upon a criminal process against me, I left the place, and embarked for Babylon. There I have been kept a long while in chains. But this day the god Serapis appeared to me, and broke my chains; after which he conducted me hither, and ordered me to put on this robe and diadem, and sit here in silence."

After the man had thus explained himself, Alexander, by the advice of his soothsayers, put him to death. But the anguish of his mind increased; on one hand, he almost despaired of the succours of heaven, and on the other distrusted his friends. He was most afraid of Antipater and his sons; one of which, named Iolus*, was his cupbearer; the other, named Cassander, was lately arrived from Macedonia; and happening to see some barbarians prostrate themselves before the king, like a man accustomed only to the Grecian manners, and a stranger to such a sight, he burst out into a loud laugh. Alexander, enraged at

* Arrian and Curtius call him *Iollus*. Plutarch calls him *Iolus* below.

the affront, seized him by the hair, and with both hands dashed his head against the wall. Cassander afterwards attempted to vindicate his father against his accusers; which greatly irritated the king. "What is this talk of thine?" said he. "Dost thou think that men who had suffered no injury, would come so far to bring a false charge?" "Their coming so far," replied Cassander, "is an argument that the charge is false, because they are at a distance from those who are able to contradict them." At this Alexander smiled, and said, "These are some of Aristotle's sophisms, which make equally for either side of the question. But be assured I will make you repent it, if these men have had the least injustice done them."

This, and other menaces, left such a terror upon Cassander, and made so lasting an impression upon his mind, that many years after, when king of Macedon, and master of all Greece, as he was walking about at Delphi, and taking a view of the statues, the sudden sight of that of Alexander is said to have struck him with such horror, that he trembled all over, and it was with difficulty he recovered of the giddiness it caused in his brain.

When Alexander had once given himself up to superstition, his mind was so preyed upon by vain fears and anxieties, that he turned the least incident which was any thing strange and out of the way, into a sign or a prodigy. The court swarmed with sacrifices, purifiers, and prognosticators; they were all to be seen exercising their talents there. So true it is, that though the disbelief of religion, and contempt of things divine, is a great evil, yet superstition is a greater. For, as water gains upon low grounds*, so

* The text in this place is corrupt. For the sake of those readers who have not Bryan's edition of the Greek, we shall give the emendation which the learned Moses du Soul proposes—*ἡ διωδαιμονία, διὰ τοῦ θάνατος, αἰὲν πρὸς τὸ ταπεινωμαίον καὶ ΚΑΤΑΝΤΕΣ ΡΕΟΥΣ, ἀβελτηρίας καὶ φόβου τοῦ Ἀλεξάνδρου ΑΝΕΠΙΛΗΡΟΥ.*

superstition prevails over a dejected mind, and fills it with fear and folly. This was entirely Alexander's case. However, upon the receipt of some oracles concerning Hephæstion from the god he commonly consulted, he gave a truce to his sorrows, and employed himself in festive sacrifices and entertainments.

One day, after he had given Nearchus a sumptuous treat, he went, according to custom, to refresh himself in the bath, in order to retire to rest. But in the mean time Medius came and invited him to take part in a caroual, and he could not deny him. There he drank all that night and the next day, till at last he found a fever coming upon him. It did not, however, seize him as he was drinking the cup of Hercules, nor did he find a sudden pain in his back, as if it had been pierced with a spear. These are circumstances invented by writers, who thought the catastrophe of so noble a tragedy should be something affecting and extraordinary. Aristobulus tells us, that in the rage of his fever, and the violence of his thirst, he took a draught of wine, which threw him into a frenzy, and that he died in the thirtieth of the month *Dæsius, June*.

But in his journals the account of his sickness is as follows, “ On the eighteenth of the month *Dæsius*,
 “ finding the fever upon him, he lay in his bath-
 “ room. The next day, after he had bathed, he re-
 “ moved into his own chamber, and played many
 “ hours with Medius at dice. In the evening he bathed
 “ again, and after having sacrificed to the gods, he
 “ ate his supper. In the night the fever returned.
 “ The twentieth he also bathed, and after the cus-
 “ tomary sacrifice, sat in the bath-room, and diverted
 “ himself with hearing Nearchus tell the story of his
 “ voyage, and all that was most observable with re-
 “ spect to the ocean. The twenty-first was spent in
 “ the same manner. The fever increased, and he had
 “ a very bad night. The twenty-second, the fever
 “ was violent. He ordered his bed to be removed,
 “ and

“ and placed by the great bath. There he talked to
 “ his generals about the vacancies in his army, and
 “ desired they might be filled up with experienced
 “ officers. The twenty-fourth he was much worse.
 “ He chose, however, to be carried to assist at the
 “ sacrifice. He likewise gave orders that the princi-
 “ pal officers of the army should wait within the court,
 “ and the others keep watch all night without. The
 “ twenty-fifth he was removed to his palace, on the
 “ other side of the river, where he slept a little, but
 “ the fever did not abate; and when his generals en-
 “ tered the room he was speechless. He continued
 “ so the day following. The Macedonians, by this
 “ time, thinking he was dead, came to the gates with
 “ great clamour, and threatened the great officers in
 “ such a manner, that they were forced to admit them,
 “ and suffer them all to pass unarmed by the bed-side.
 “ The twenty-seventh, Python and Seleucus were sent
 “ to the temple of Sarapis, to enquire whether they
 “ should carry Alexander thither, and the deity or-
 “ dered that they should not remove him. The twen-
 “ ty-eighth in the evening he died.” These particulars
 are taken almost word for word from his diary.

There was no suspicion of poison at the time of his
 death; but six years after, (we are told) Olympias,
 upon some information, put a number of people to
 death, and ordered the remains of *Paris*, who was
 supposed to have given him the draught, to be dug
 out of the grave. Those who say Aristotle advised
 Antipater to such a horrid deed, and furnished him
 with the poison he sent to Babylon, allege one *Ag-
 nothemis* as their author, who is pretended to have
 had the information from king Antigonus. They add,
 that the poison was a water of a cold and deadly qua-
 lity*, which distils from a rock in the territory of *No-
 nacris*; and that they receive it as they would do so many

* Hence it was called the *Stygian Water*. *Nonacris* was a city
of *Arcadia*.

dew-drops, and keep it in an ass's hoof; its extreme coldness and acrimony being such, that it makes its way through all other vessels. The generality, however, look upon the story of the poison as a mere fable; and they have this strong argument in their favour, that though, on account of the disputes which the great officers were engaged in for many days, the body lay unembalmed * in a sultry place, it had no sign of any such taint, but continued fresh and clear.

Roxana was now pregnant, and therefore had great attention paid her by the Macedonians. But being extremely jealous of Statira, she laid a snare for her by a forged letter, as from Alexander; and having, by this means, got her into her power, she sacrificed both her and her sister, and threw their bodies into a well which she filled up with earth. Perdicas was her accomplice in this murder. Indeed he had now the principal power, which he exercised in the name of Aridæus, whom he treated rather as a screen, than as a king.

Aridæus was the son of Philip by a courtesan named Philinna, a woman of low birth. His deficiency in understanding was the consequence of a distemper, in which neither nature nor accident had any share. For it is said, there was something amiable and great in him when a boy: which Olympias perceiving, gave him potions that disturbed his brain †.

* αδιάρτητον.

† Portraits of the same person, taken at different periods of life, though they differ greatly from each other, retain a resemblance upon the whole. And so it is in general with the characters of men. But Alexander seems to be an exception: For nothing can admit of greater dissimilarity than that which entered into his disposition at different times, and in different circumstances. He was brave and pusillanimous, merciful and cruel, modest and vain, abstemious and luxurious, rational and superstitious, polite and over-bearing, politic and imprudent. Nor were these changes casual or temporary: The style of his character underwent a total revolution, and he passed from virtue to vice in a regular and progressive manner. Munificence and pride were the only characteristics that never forsook him. If there were any vice of which he was incapable, it was avarice; if any virtue, it was humility.

JULIUS CÆSAR.

WHEN Sylla had made himself master of Rome*, he endeavoured to bring Cæsar to repudiate Cornelia, daughter to Cinna, one of the late tyrants; and finding he could not effect it either by hopes or fears †, he confiscated her dowry. Indeed, Cæsar, as a relation to Marius, was naturally an enemy to Sylla. Old Marius had married Julia, Cæsar's aunt, and therefore young Marius, the son he had by her, was Cæsar's cousin-german. At first Sylla, amidst the vast number of proscriptions that engaged his attention, overlooked this enemy; but Cæsar, not content with escaping so, presented himself to the people as a candidate for the priesthood ‡, though he was not yet come to years of maturity. Sylla exerted

* Some imagine that the beginning of this Life is lost; but if they look back to the Introduction to the Life of Alexander, that notion will vanish.

† Cæsar would not make such a sacrifice to the dictator, as Piso had done, who, at his command, divorced his wife Annia. Pompey too, for the sake of Sylla's alliance, repudiated Antistia.

‡ Cæsar had the priesthood before Sylla was dictator. In the seventeenth year of his age he broke his engagement to Cossutia, though she was of a consular and opulent family, and married Cornelia, the daughter of Cinna, by whose interest, and that of Marius, he was created *Flamen Dialis*, or priest of Jupiter. Sylla, when absolute master of Rome, insisted on his divorcing Cornelia, and upon his refusal, deprived him of that office.

SUTTON. in Julio.

his influence against him, and he miscarried. The dictator afterwards thought of having him taken off; and when some said, there was no need to put such a boy to death, he answered, "Their sagacity was small, if they did not in that boy see many Mariuses."

This saying being reported to Cæsar, he concealed himself a long time, wandering up and down in the country of the Sabines. Amidst his movements from house to house he fell sick, and on that account was forced to be carried in a litter. The soldiers employed by Sylla to search those parts, and drag the proscribed persons from their retreats, one night fell in with him; but Cornelius, who commanded them, was prevailed on by a bribe of two talents to let him go.

He then hastened to sea, and sailed to Bithynia, where he sought protection of Nicomedes the king. His stay, however, with him was not long. He re-embarked, and was taken, near the isle of Pharmacusa, by pirates, who were masters of that sea, and blocked up all the passages with a number of galleys and other vessels. They asked him only twenty talents for his ransom. He laughed at their demand, as the consequence of their not knowing him, and promised them fifty talents. To raise the money, he dispatched his people to different cities, and in the mean time remained with only one friend and two attendants among these Cilicians, who considered murder as a trifle. Cæsar, however, held them in great contempt, and used to send, whenever he went to sleep, and order them to keep silence. Thus he lived among them thirty-eight days, as if they had been his guards, rather than his keepers. Perfectly fearless and secure, he joined in their diversions, and took his exercises among them. He wrote poems and orations, and rehearsed them to these pirates; and when they expressed no admiration, he called them dunces and barbarians. Nay, he often threatened to crucify them. They were delighted with these freedoms,
which

which they imputed to his frank and facetious vein. But as soon as the money was brought from Miletus, and he had recovered his liberty, he manned some vessels in the port of Miletus *, in order to attack these corsairs. He found them still lying at anchor by the island, took most of them, together with the money, and imprisoned them at Pergamus. After which, he applied to Junius, who then commanded in Asia, because to him, as prætor, it belonged to punish them. Junius having an eye upon the money, which was a considerable sum, demurred about the matter; and Cæsar perceiving his intention, returned to Pergamus, and crucified all the prisoners as he had often threatened to do at Pharmacusa, when they took him to be in jest.

When the power of Sylla came to be upon the decline, Cæsar's friends pressed him to return to Rome. But first he went to Rhodes, to study under Apollonius, the son of Molo †, who taught rhetoric there

* Dacier reads *Melos*, which was one of the Cyclades, but does not mention his authority.

† It should be *Apollonius Molo*, not Apollonius the son of Molo: According to Suetonius, Cæsar had studied under him at Rome before this adventure of the pirates. Thus far Dacier; and Ruault and other critics say the same. Yet Strabo (L. xiv. p. 655, 660, 661) tells us, Molo and Apollonius were two different men. He affirms that they were both natives of Alabanda, a city of Caria; that they were both scholars of Menacles the Alabandian; and that they both professed the same art at Rhodes, though Molo went thither later than Apollonius, who, on that account, applied to him that of Homer, *Ὀψι μάλα*. Cicero likewise seems to distinguish them, calling the one Molo, and the other Apollonius the Alabandian, especially in his first book *De Oratore*, where he introduces M. Antonius speaking of him thus: "For this one thing I always liked Apollonius the Alabandian; though he taught for money, he did not suffer any whom he thought incapable of making a figure as orators, to lose their time and labour with him, but sent them home, exhorting them to apply themselves to that art, for which they were, in his opinion, best qualified."

To solve this difficulty, we are willing to suppose, with Ruault, that there were two Molos cotemporaries; for the testimonies of Suetonius (in Cæfare, c. 4.) and of Quintilian (*Institut.* l. xii. c. 6.) that Cæsar and Cicero were pupils to Apollonius Molo, can never be over-ruled.

with great reputation, and was a man of irreproachable manners. Cicero also was one of his scholars. Cæsar is said to have had happy talents from nature for a public speaker, and he did not want an ambition to cultivate them: so that undoubtedly he was the second orator in Rome; and he might have been the first, had he not rather chosen the pre-eminence in arms. Thus he never rose to that pitch of eloquence to which his powers would have brought him, being engaged in those wars and political intrigues, which at last gained him the empire. Hence it was, that afterwards, in his *Anti-Cato*, which he wrote in answer to a book of Cicero's, he desired his readers "not to expect in the performance of a military man the style of a complete orator, who had bestowed all his time upon such studies."

Upon his return to Rome, he impeached Dolabella for misdemeanors in his government, and many cities of Greece supported the charge by their evidence. Dolabella was acquitted. Cæsar, however, in acknowledgment of the readiness Greece had shewn to serve him, assisted her in her prosecution of Publius Antonius for corruption. The cause was brought before Marcus Lucullus, prætor of Macedonia; and Cæsar pleaded it in so powerful a manner, that the defendant was forced to appeal to the tribunes of the people; alleging that he was not upon equal terms with the Greeks in Greece.

The eloquence he shewed at Rome in defending persons impeached, gained him a considerable interest, and his engaging address and conversation carried the hearts of the people. For he had a condescension not to be expected from so young a man. At the same time, the freedom of his table, and the magnificence of his expence, gradually increased his power, and brought him into the administration. Those who envied him, imagined that his resources would soon fail, and therefore, at first made light of his popularity, considerable as it was. But when it was grown to such a height that

that it was scarcely possible to demolish it, and had a plain tendency to the ruin of the constitution, they found out, when it was too late, that no beginnings of things, however small, are to be neglected; because continuance makes them great; and the very contempt they are held in, gives them opportunity to gain that strength which cannot be resisted.

Cicero seems to be the first who suspected something formidable from the flattering calm of Cæsar's political conduct, and saw deep and dangerous designs under the smiles of his benignity. "I perceive," said the orator "an inclination for tyranny in all he projects and executes; but, on the other hand, when I see him adjusting his hair with so much exactness, and scratching his head with one finger, I can hardly think that such a man can conceive so vast and fatal a design, as the destruction of the Roman commonwealth." This, however, was an observation made at a much later period than that we are upon.

The first proof he had of the affection of the people, was when he obtained a tribuneship in the army before his competitor Caius Popilius. The second was more remarkable: it was on occasion of his pronouncing from the rostrum the funeral oration of his aunt Julia, the wife of Marius, in which he failed not to do justice to her virtue. At the same time he had the hardiness to produce the images of Marius, which had not been seen before during Sylla's administration; Marius and all his adherents having been declared enemies to the state. Upon this some began to raise a clamour against Cæsar; but they were soon silenced by the acclamations and plaudits of the people, expressing their admiration of his courage in bringing the honours of Marius again to light, after so long a suppression, and raising them, as it were, from the shades below.

It had long been the custom in Rome for the aged women to have funeral panegyrics, but not the young. Cæsar first broke through it, by pronouncing one for his

his own wife, who died in her prime. This contributed to fix him in the affections of the people: they sympathized with him, and considered him as a man of great good-nature, and one who had the social duties at heart,

After the funeral of his wife, he went out quæstor into Spain, with Antistius Veter*, the prætor, whom he honoured all his life after; and when he came to be prætor himself, he acknowledged the favour by taking Veter's son for his quæstor. When that commission was expired, he took Pompeia to his third wife; having a daughter by his first wife Cornelia, whom he afterwards married to Pompey the Great.

Many people, who observed his prodigious expence, thought he was purchasing a short and transient honour very dear; but, in fact, he was gaining the greatest things he could aspire to, at a small price. He is said to have been a thousand three hundred talents in debt before he got any public employment. When he had the superintendance of the Appian Road, he laid out a great deal of his own money; and when ædile he not only exhibited three hundred and twenty pair of gladiators, but in the other diversions of the theatre, in the processions and public tables, he far outshone the most ambitious that had gone before him. These things attached the people to him so strongly, that every one sought for new honours and employments, to recompense his generosity.

There were two factions in the state; that of Sylla, which was the strongest, and that of Marius, which was in a broken and low condition. Cæsar's study was to raise and revive the latter. In pursuance of which intention, when his exhibitions, as ædile, were in the highest reputation, he caused new images of Marius to be privately made, together with a representation of his victories adorned with trophies, and one night placed them in the capital. Next morning these figures were seen glistering with gold, of the most exquisite work-

* See Vel. Paternulus, ii. 45.

manship, and bearing inscriptions which declared them the achievements of Marius against the Cimbri. The spectators were astonished at the boldness of the man who erected them; nor was it difficult to know who he was. The report spread with the utmost rapidity, and the whole city assembled to see them. Some exclaimed, that Cæsar plainly affected the tyranny, by openly producing those honours which the laws had condemned to darkness and oblivion. This, they said, was done to make a trial of the people, whom he had prepared by his caresses, whether they would suffer themselves to be entirely caught by his venal benefactions, and let him play upon them and make what innovations he pleased. On the other hand, the partizans of Marius encouraging each other, ran to the capitol in vast numbers, and made it echo with their plaudits. Some of them even wept for joy at the sight of Marius's countenance. They bestowed the highest encomiums upon Cæsar, and declared he was the only relation worthy of that great man.

The senate was assembled on the occasion, and Lutatius Catulus, a man of the greatest reputation in Rome, rose and accused Cæsar. In his speech against him was this memorial expression, "You no longer attack the commonwealth by mines, but by open battery." Cæsar, however, defended his cause so well, that the senate gave it for him: and his admirers, still more elated, desired him to keep up a spirit of enterprize, for he might gain every thing with the consent of the people, and easily become the first man in Rome.

Amidst these transactions, died Metellus, the principal pontiff. The office was solicited by Isauricus and Catulus, two of the most illustrious men in Rome, and of the greatest interest in the senate. Nevertheless, Cæsar did not give place to them, but presented himself to the people as a candidate. The pretensions and prospects of the competitors seemed almost equal, and Catulus, more uneasy than the others under the uncertainty

tainty of success, on account of his superior dignity, sent privately to Cæsar, and offered him large sums, on condition that he would desist from this high pursuit. But he answered, " He would rather borrow " still larger sums to carry his election."

When the day of election came, Cæsar's mother attending him to the door, with her eyes bathed in tears, he embraced her and said, " My dear mother, you " will see me this day either chief pontiff or an exile." There never was any thing more strongly contested; the suffrages, however, gave it for Cæsar. The senate, and others of the principal citizens, were greatly alarmed at this success; they apprehended that he would now push the people into all manner of licentiousness and misrule. Therefore, Piso and Catulus blamed Cicero much for sparing Cæsar, when Catiline's conspiracy gave him an opportunity to take him off. Catiline, whose intention was not so much to make alterations in the constitution, as entirely to subvert it, and throw all into confusion, upon some slight suspicions appearing against him, quitted Rome before the whole was unravelled; but he left behind him Lentulus and Cethegus to conduct the conspiracy within the city.

Whether Cæsar privately encouraged and supported them, is uncertain; what is universally agreed upon, is this. The guilt of those two conspirators clearly appearing, Cicero, as consul, took the sense of the senators as to the punishment that should be inflicted upon them; and they all gave it for death, till it came to Cæsar's turn, who, in a studied speech, represented, " That it seemed neither agreeable to justice, " nor to the customs of their country, to put men of " their birth and dignity to death, without an open " trial, except in case of extreme necessity. But that " they should rather be kept in prison, in any of the " cities of Italy that Cicero might pitch upon, till " Catiline was subdued; and then the senate might " take cognizance of the crimes of each conspirator " in full peace, and at their leisure."

As there appeared something humane in this opinion, and it was powerfully enforced by the orator, those who gave their voices afterwards, and even many who had declared for the other side of the question, came into it. But Cato and Catulus carried it for death. Cato, in a severe speech against the opinion of Cæsar, scrupled not to declare his suspicions of *him*; and this, with other arguments, had so much weight, that the two conspirators were delivered to the executioner. Nay, as Cæsar was going out of the senate-house, several of the young men, who guarded Cicero's person, ran upon him with their drawn swords; but we are told that Curio covered him with his gown, and so carried him off; and that Cicero himself, when the young men looked at him for a nod of consent, refused it, either out of fear of the people, or because he thought the killing him unjust and unlawful. If this was true, I know not why Cicero did not mention it in the history of his consulship. He was blamed, however, afterwards, for not availing himself of so good an opportunity as he then had, and for being influenced by his fears of the people, who were indeed strongly attached to Cæsar. For, a few days after, when Cæsar entered the senate, and endeavoured to clear himself of the suspicions he lay under, his defence was received with indignation and loud reproaches; and as they sat longer than usual, the people beset the house, and with violent outcries demanded Cæsar, absolutely insisting on his being dismissed.

Cato, therefore, fearing an insurrection of the indigent populace, who were foremost in all seditions, and who had fixed their hopes upon Cæsar, persuaded the senate to order a distribution of bread-corn among them every month, which added five million five hundred thousand *drachmas* to the yearly expences of the state*. This expedient certainly obviated the present danger, by seasonably reducing the power of Cæsar,

* But this distribution did not continue long.

who was now prætor elect, and more formidable on that account.

Cæsar's prætorship was not productive of any trouble to the commonwealth, but that year there happened a disagreeable event in his own family. There was a young patrician, named Publius Clodius, of great fortune, and distinguished eloquence, but at the same time one of the foremost among the vicious and the profligate. This man entertained a passion for Pompeia, Cæsar's wife, nor did she discountenance it. But the women's apartment was so narrowly observed, and all the steps of Pompeia so much attended to by Aurelia, Cæsar's mother, who was a woman of great virtue and prudence, that it was difficult and hazardous for them to have an interview.

Among the goddesses the Romans worship, there is one they call *Bona Dea*, the good goddess, as the Greeks have one they call *Gynæcea*, the patroness of the women. The Phrygians claim her as the mother of their king Midas; the Romans say, she was a Dryad, and wife of Faunus; and the Greeks assure us, she is that mother of Bacchus, whose name is not to be uttered. For this reason, the women, when they keep her festival, cover their tents with vine branches; and, according to the fable, a sacred dragon lies at the feet of the goddess. No man is allowed to be present, nor even to be in the house, at the celebration of her orgies. Many of the ceremonies the women then perform by themselves, are said to be like those in the feasts of Orpheus.

When the anniversary of the festival comes, the consul or prætor (for it is at the house of one of them it is kept) goes out, and not a male is left in it. The wife now having the house to herself, decorates it in a proper manner; the mysteries are performed in the night; and the whole is spent in music and play. Pompeia this year was the directress of the feast. Clodius, who was yet a beardless youth, thought he might pass in woman's apparel undiscovered, and

and having taken the garb and instruments of a female musician, perfectly resembled one. He found the door open, and was safely introduced by a maid-servant who knew the affair. She ran before to tell Pompeia; and as she stayed a considerable time, Clodius durst not remain where she left him, but wandering about the great house, endeavouring to avoid the lights. At last, Aurelia's woman fell in with him, and supposing she spoke to a woman, challenged him to play. Upon his refusing it, she drew him into the midst of the room, and asked him who he was, and whence he came? He said, he waited for Abra, Pompeia's maid; for that was her name. His voice immediately detected him: Aurelia's woman ran up to the lights and the company, crying out she had found a man in the house. The thing struck them all with terror and astonishment. Aurelia put a stop to the ceremonies, and covered up the symbols of their mysterious worship. She ordered the doors to be made fast, and with lighted torches hunted up and down for the man. At length Clodius was found, lurking in the chamber of the maid-servant who had introduced him. The women knew him, and turned him out of the house: after which, they went home immediately, though it was yet night, and informed their husbands of what had happened.

Next morning the report of the sacrilegious attempt spread through all Rome, and nothing was talked of, but that Clodius ought to make satisfaction with his life to the family he had offended, as well as to the city and to the gods. One of the tribunes impeached him of impiety; and the principal senators strengthened the charge, by accusing him, to his face, of many villainous debaucheries, and among the rest, of incest with his own sister, the wife of Lucullus. On the other hand, the people exerted themselves with equal vigour in his defence, and the great influence the fear of them had upon his judges, was of much service to his cause. Cæsar immediately divorced Pompeia;
yet,

yet, when called as an evidence on the trial, he declared he knew nothing of what was alleged against Clodius. As this declaration appeared somewhat strange, the accuser demanded, why, if that was the case, he had divorced his wife? "Because," said he, "I would have the chastity of my wife clear even of suspicion." Some say, Cæsar's evidence was according to his conscience; others, that he gave it to oblige the people, who were set upon saving Clodius. Be that as it might, Clodius came off clear; most of the judges having confounded * the letters upon the tablets, that they might neither expose themselves to the resentment of the plebeians, if they condemned him, nor lose their credit with the patricians, if they acquitted him.

* Here it is *συνεχρυσας τοις πρηγμασι τας γυμνας*. M. Dacier would correct by this the passage in the Life of Cicero, which is *τας δευτερας συνεχρυσας τοις γραμμασι*. He translates it, *la plupart des juges ayant donné leurs avis sur plusieurs affaires en même tems; the greatest part of the judges comprehending other causes along with this in their sentence*. But that could not be the case; for that manner of passing sentence, or rather of passing bills, was forbidden by the Lex Cæcilia et Didia. Besides, it would not have answered the purpose: Their sentence would have been equally known. We therefore rather choose to correct this passage by that in the life of Cicero.

After the pleadings were finished, the prætor gave each of the judges three tablets; one marked with the letter *A*, which acquitted, another with the letter *C*, which condemned, and a third with *N. L.* *Non licet; the case is not clear*. Each judge put into an urn which tablet he pleased: And as they withdrew to consult before they did it, it was easy to deface or obscure any letters upon the tablets, because they were only written in wax.

Still there occurs this objection, Would the prætor, who was to count them, and pass sentence according to the majority, admit of tablets with letters so defaced or obscured? A corrupt one, indeed, might, and interpret them the way he was inclined. But as Plutarch does not say *obscured*, but *συνεχρυσας*, *confused*, possibly he only meant that the judges instead of putting tablets all marked with the same letter, put in several of each kind, in order to prevent the displeasure of the senate or the people from fixing upon any of them in particular.

The

The government of Spain* was allotted Cæsar after his prætorship. But his circumstances were so indifferent, and his creditors so clamorous and troublesome when he was preparing for his departure, that he was forced to apply to Crassus, the richest man in Rome, who stood in need of Cæsar's warmth and vigour to keep up the balance against Pompey. Crassus, therefore, took upon him to answer the most inexorable of his creditors, and engaged for eight hundred and thirty talents; which procured him liberty to set out for his province.

It is said, that when he came to a little town, in passing the Alps, his friends, by way of mirth, took occasion to say, "Can there here be any disputes for offices, any contentions for precedency, or such envy and ambition as we see among the great?" To which Cæsar answered, with great seriousness, "I assure you I had rather be the first man here, than the second man in Rome."

In like manner we are told, that when he was in Spain, he bestowed some leisure hours on reading part of the history of Alexander, and was so much affected with it, that he sat pensive a long time, and at last burst out into tears. As his friends were wondering what might be the reason, he said, "Do you think I have not sufficient cause for concern, when Alexander at my age reigned over so many conquered countries, and I have not one glorious achievement to boast."

From this principle it was, that immediately upon his arrival in Spain he applied to business with great diligence, and having added ten new raised cohorts to the twenty he received there, he marched against the

* It was the government of the farther Spain only that fell to his lot. This province comprehended Lusitania and Bætica, that is, Portugal and Andalusia. Casaubon supposed the word *ιστρος* to have slipped out of the text between *την* and *Ισπανίαν*; but it is not a matter of importance enough, to alter the text for it.

Callæcians * and Lusitanians, defeated them, and penetrated to the ocean, reducing nations by the way that had not felt the Roman yoke. His conduct in peace was not inferior to that in the war; he restored harmony among the cities, and removed the occasions of quarrel between debtors and creditors. For he ordered that the creditor should have two-thirds of the debtor's income, and the debtor the remaining third, till the whole was paid. By these means he left the province with great reputation, though he had filled his own coffers, and enriched his soldiers with booty, who, upon one of his victories, saluted him *Imperator*.

At his return he found himself under a troublesome dilemma: those that solicit a triumph being obliged to remain without the walls, and such as sue for the consulship, to make their personal appearance in Rome. As these were things that he could not reconcile, and his arrival happened at the time of the election of consuls, he applied to the senate for permission to stand candidate, though absent, and offer his service by his friends. Cato strongly opposed his request, insisting on the prohibition by law; and when he saw numbers influenced by Cæsar, he attempted to prevent his success by gaining time; with which view he spun out the debate till it was too late to conclude upon any thing that day. Cæsar then determined to give up the triumph, and solicit the consulship.

As soon as he had entered the city, he went to work upon an expedient which deceived all the world except Cato. It was the reconciling of Pompey and Crassus, two of the most powerful men in Rome. By making them friends, Cæsar secured the interest of both to himself; and while he seemed to be only doing an office of humanity, he was undermining the constitution. For it was not, what most people imagine,

* In the text Καλλαιῶτες. Crusenius renders it *Gallæcos*; but, according to Cellarius, he is under a mistake.

the disagreement between Cæsar and Pompey that produced the civil wars, but rather their union. They first combined to ruin the authority of the senate, and when that was effected, they parted to pursue each his own designs. Cato, who often prophesied what would be the consequence, was then looked upon as a troublesome and over-busy man; afterwards he was esteemed a wise, though not a fortunate counsellor.

Meantime Cæsar walked to the place of election between Crassus and Pompey, and under the auspices of their friendship was declared consul with distinguished honour, having Calpurnius Bibulus given him for his colleague. He had no sooner entered upon his office, than he proposed laws not so suitable to a consul as to a seditious tribune; I mean the bills for a division of lands and a distribution of corn, which were entirely calculated to please the plebeians. As the virtuous and patriotic part of the senate opposed them, he was furnished with the pretext he had long wanted: he protested with great warmth, "That they
" threw him into the arms of the people against his
" will, and that the rigorous and disgraceful opposi-
" tion of the senate laid him under the disagreeable
" necessity of seeking protection from the commons." Accordingly he did immediately apply to them.

Crassus planted himself on one side of him, and Pompey on the other. He demanded of them aloud, " Whether they approved his laws?" and, as they answered in the affirmative, he desired their assistance against those who threatened to oppose them, with the sword. They declared, they would assist him; and Pompey added, " Against those who come with the
" sword, I will bring both sword and buckler." This expression gave the patricians great pain: it appeared not only unworthy of his character, the respect the senate had for him, and the reverence due to them, but even desperate and frantic. The people, however, were pleased with it.

Cæsar was willing to avail himself still farther of Pompey's interest. His daughter Julia was betrothed to Servilius Cæpio, but notwithstanding that engagement, he gave her to Pompey; and told Servilius he should have Pompey's daughter, whose hand was not properly at liberty, for she was promised to Faustus the son of Sylla. Soon after this, Cæsar married Calpurnia, the daughter of Piso, and procured the consulship for Piso for the year ensuing. Meanwhile Cato exclaimed loudly against these proceedings, and called both gods and men to witness, how insupportable it was, that the first dignities of the state should be prostituted by marriages, and that this traffic of women should gain them what governments and forces they pleased.

As for Bibulus, Cæsar's colleague, when he found his opposition to their new laws entirely unsuccessful, and that his life, as well as Cato's, was often endangered in the public assemblies, he shut himself up in his own house during the remainder of the year.

Immediately after this marriage, Pompey filled the *Forum* with armed men, and got the laws enacted, which Cæsar had proposed merely to ingratiate himself with the people. At the same time the government of Gaul, both on this and the other side the Alps, was decreed to Cæsar for five years; to which was added Illyricum, with four legions. As Cato spoke against these regulations, Cæsar ordered him to be taken into custody, imagining he would appeal to the tribunes. But when he saw him going to prison without speaking one word, and observed that it not only gave the nobility great uneasiness, but that the people, out of reverence for Cato's virtue, followed him in melancholy silence, he whispered one of the tribunes to take him out of the *licitors'* hands.

Very few of the body of senators followed Cæsar on this occasion to the house. The greatest part, offended at such acts of tyranny, had withdrawn. Cornificius, one of the oldest senators that attended, taking
occasion

occasion to observe, " that it was the soldiers and
 " naked swords that kept the rest from assembling,"
 Cæsar said, " Why does not fear keep you at home,
 " too ?" Confidius replied, " Old age is my defence ;
 " the small remains of my life deserve not much care
 " or precaution."

The most disgraceful step, however, that Cæsar took
 in his whole consulship, was the getting Clodius elected
 tribune of the people ; the same who had attempted
 to dishonour his bed, and had profaned the mysterious
 rites of the Good Goddesses. He pitched upon him to
 ruin Cicero ; nor would he set out for his government
 before he had embroiled them, and procured Cicero's
 banishment. For history informs us, that all these
 transactions preceded his wars in Gaul. The wars he
 conducted there, and the many glorious campaigns in
 which he reduced that country, represent him as an-
 other man : we begin, as it were, with a new life,
 and have to follow him in a quite different tract. As
 a warrior and a general, we behold him not in the
 least inferior to the greatest and most admired com-
 manders the world ever produced. For whether we
 compare him with the Fabii, the Scipio's, and Metelli,
 with the generals of his own time, or those who flour-
 ished a little before him ; with Sylla, Marius, the two
 Luculli, or with Pompey himself, whose fame in
 every military excellence reached the skies, Cæsar's
 achievements bear away the palm. One he surpassed
 in the difficulty of the scene of action, another in the
 extent of the countries he subdued ; this, in the number
 and strength of the enemies he overcame, that, in the
 savage manners and treacherous disposition of the peo-
 ple he humanized ; one, in mildness and clemency to
 his prisoners, another, in bounty and munificence to
 his troops ; and all, in the number of battles that he
 won, and enemies that he killed. For in less than ten
 years' war in Gaul, he took eight hundred cities by
 assault, conquered three hundred nations, and fought
 pitched battles at different times with three millions

of men, one million of which he cut in pieces, and made another million prisoners.

Such, moreover, was the affection of his soldiers, and their attachment to his person, that they who under other commanders were nothing above the common rate of men, became invincible where Cæsar's glory was concerned, and met the most dreadful dangers with a courage that nothing could resist. To give three or four instances:

Acilius, in a sea-fight near Marseilles, after he had boarded one of the enemy's ships, had his right hand cut off with a sword, yet he still held his buckler in his left, and pushed it in the enemies' faces, till he defeated them, and took the vessel.

Cassius Scæva, in the battle of Dyrrachium, after he had an eye shot out with an arrow, his shoulder wounded with one javelin, his thigh run through with another, and had received a hundred and thirty darts upon his shield *, called out to the enemy, as if he would surrender himself. Upon this two of them came up to him, and he gave one of them such a stroke upon the shoulder with his sword that the arm dropt off, the other he wounded in the face, and made him retire. His comrades then came up to his assistance, and he saved his life.

In Britain some of the van-guard happened to be entangled in a deep morass, and were there attacked by the enemy, when a private soldier, in the sight of Cæsar, threw himself into the midst of the assailants, and after prodigious exertions of valour, beat off the barbarians, and rescued the men. After which, the soldier, with much difficulty, partly by swimming, partly by wading, passed the morass, but in the pas-

* Cæsar (Bell. Civ. l. iii.) says, this brave soldier received two hundred and thirty darts upon his shield, and adds, that he rewarded his bravery with two hundred thousand sesterces, and promoted him from the eighth rank to the first. He likewise ordered the soldiers of that cohort double pay, beside other military rewards.

sage lost his shield, Cæsar, and those about him, astonished at the action, ran to meet him with acclamations of joy; but the foldier in great distress threw himself at Cæsar's feet, and with tears in his eyes begged pardon for the loss of his shield.

In Africa, Scipio having taken one of Cæsar's ships, on board of which was Granius Petronius, lately appointed quæstor, put the rest to the sword, but told the quæstor, "He gave him his life." Petronius answered, "It is not the custom of Cæsar's soldiers to take but to give quarter," and immediately plunged his sword in his breast.

This courage, and this great ambition, were cultivated and cherished, in the first place, by the generous manner in which Cæsar rewarded his troops, and the honours which he paid them. For his whole conduct shewed, that he did not accumulate riches in the course of his wars, to minister to luxury, or to serve any pleasures of his own, but that he laid them up in a common bank, as prizes to be obtained by distinguished valour, and that he considered himself no farther rich, than as he was in a condition to do justice to the merit of his soldiers. Another thing that contributed to make them invincible, was their seeing Cæsar always take his share in danger, and never desire any exemption from labour and fatigue.

As for his exposing his person to danger, they were not surpris'd at it, because they knew his passion for glory; but they were astonished at his patience under toil, so far in all appearance above his bodily powers. For he was of a slender make, fair, of a delicate constitution, and subject to violent head-aches and epileptic fits. He had the first attack of the falling sickness at Corduba. He did not, however, make these disorders a pretence for indulging himself. On the contrary, he sought in war a remedy for his infirmities, endeavouring to strengthen his constitution by long marches, by simple diet, by seldom coming under

covert. Thus he contended with his distemper, and fortified himself against its attacks.

When he slept, it was commonly upon a march, either in a chariot or a litter, that rest might be no hindrance to business. In the day-time he visited the castles, cities, and fortified camps, with a servant at his side, whom he employed, on such occasions, to write for him, and with a soldier behind, who carried his sword. By these means, he travelled so fast, and with so little interruption, as to reach the Rhone in eight days after his first setting out for those parts from Rome.

He was a good horseman in his early years, and brought that exercise to such perfection by practice, that he could sit a horse at full speed with his hands behind him. In this expedition he also accustomed himself to dictate letters as he rode on horseback, and found sufficient employment for two secretaries at once, or, according to Oppius, for more. It is also said, that Cæsar was the first who contrived to communicate his thoughts by letter to his friends, who were in the same city with him, when any urgent affair required it, and the multitude of business, or great extent of the city, did not admit of an interview.

Of his indifference with respect to diet they give us this remarkable proof. Happening to sup with Valerius Leo, a friend of his, at Milan, there was sweet ointment poured upon the asparagus instead of oil. Cæsar eat of it freely notwithstanding, and afterwards rebuked his friends for expressing their dislike of it. "It was enough," said he, "to forbear eating, if it was disagreeable to you. He who finds fault with any rusticity, is himself a rustic."

One day, as he was upon an excursion, a violent storm forced him to seek shelter in a poor man's hut, where there was only one room, and that scarcely big enough for a man to sleep in. Turning, therefore, to his friends, he said, "Honours for the great and necessities for the infirm," and immediately gave up
the

the room to Oppius, while himself and the rest of the company slept under a shed at the door.

His first expedition in Gaul was against the Helvetians and the Tigurini; who, after having burnt twelve of their own towns and four hundred villages, put themselves under march, in order to penetrate into Italy, through that part of Gaul which was subject to the Romans, as the Cimbri and Teutones would have done before them. Nor were these new adventurers inferior to the other in courage; and in numbers they were equal; being in all three hundred thousand, of which a hundred and ninety thousand were fighting men. Cæsar sent his lieutenant, Labienus*, against the Tigurini, who routed them near the river Arar. But the Helvetians suddenly attacked Cæsar, as he was upon the march to a confederate town †. He gained, however, a strong post for his troops, notwithstanding the surprise; and when he had drawn them up, his horse was brought him. Upon which he said, "When I have won the battle I shall want my horse for the pursuit; at present let us march, as we are, against the enemy." Accordingly he charged them with great vigour on foot ‡.

It cost him a long and severe conflict to drive their army out of the field; but he found the greatest difficulty when he came to their rampart of carriages; for not only the men made a most obstinate stand there, but the very women and children fought till they were cut in pieces; infomuch that the battle did not end before midnight.

* Cæsar says himself, that he left Labienus to guard the works he had raised from the Lake of Geneva to Mount Jura, and that he marched in person, at the head of three legions, to attack the Tigurini in their passage over the Arar, now the Soane, and killed great numbers of them.

† Bibracte, now Autun.

‡ He sent back his horse, and the rest followed his example. This he did to prevent all hopes of a retreat, as well as to shew his troops that he would take his share in all the danger. *Vide Bell. Gall. lib. 1.*

To this great action he added a still greater. He collected the barbarians who had escaped out of the battle, to the number of an hundred thousand, and upwards, and obliged them to resettle the country they had relinquished, and to rebuild the cities they had burnt. This he did, in fear that if the country were left without inhabitants, the Germans would pass the Rhine and seize it.

His second war was in defence of the Gauls against the Germans, though he had before honoured their king Ariovistus with the title of an ally of Rome. They proved insupportable neighbours * to those he had subdued, and it was easy to see, that instead of being satisfied with their present acquisitions, if opportunity offered, they would extend their conquests over all Gaul. He found, however, his officers, particularly those of the young nobility, afraid of this expedition; for they had entered into Cæsar's service only in hopes of living luxuriously, and making their fortunes. He therefore called them together, and told them, before the whole army, "That they were at liberty to retire, and needed not hazard their persons against their inclination, since they were so unmanly and spiritless. For his part, he would march with the tenth legion only against those barbarians; for they were neither better men than the Cimbrians, nor was he a worse general than Marius." Upon this the tenth legion deputed some of their corps to thank him. The other legions laid the whole blame upon their officers, and all followed him with great spirit and alacrity. After a march of several days, they encamped within two hundred furlongs of the enemy.

* The Ædui implored his protection against Ariovistus, king of the Germans, who, taking advantage of the differences which had long subsisted between them and the Arverni, had joined the latter, made himself master of great part of the country of the Sequani, and obliged the Ædui to give him their children as hostages. The Ædui were the people of Autun; the Arverni of Auvergne; and the Sequani of Franche Comte. CAES. Bell. Gall. lib. i.

Cæsar's arrival broke the confidence of Ariovistus. Instead of expecting that the Romans would come and attack him, he had supposed they would not dare to stand the Germans, when they went in quest of them. He was much surprised, therefore, at this bold attempt of Cæsar, and, what was worse, he saw his own troops were disheartened. They were dispirited still more by the prophecies of their matrons who had the care of divining, and used to do it by the eddies of rivers, the windings, the murmurs or other noise made by the stream. On this occasion they charged the army not to give battle before the new moon appeared.

Cæsar having got information of these matters, and seeing the Germans lie close in their camp, thought it better to engage them while thus dejected, than to sit still and wait their time. For this reason he attacked their entrenchments, and the hills upon which they were posted; which provoked them to such a degree, that they descended in great fury to the plain. They fought, and were entirely routed. Cæsar pursued them to the Rhine, which was three hundred furlongs from the field of battle*, covering all the way with dead bodies and spoils. Ariovistus reached the river time enough to get over with a few troops. The number of killed is said to have amounted to eighty thousand.

After he had thus terminated the war, he left his army in winter quarters in the country of the Sequani, and repaired to Gaul, on this side the Po, which was part of his province, in order to have an eye upon the transactions in Rome. For the river Rubicon parts the rest of Italy from Cisalpine Gaul. During his stay there, he carried on a variety of state intrigues. Great numbers came from Rome to pay their respects to him, and he sent them all away satisfied; some

* Cæsar says, it was only five miles from the field of battle, there fore instead of *τριακοσις*, we should read *πεντακοντα*.

laden with presents, and others happy in hope. In the same manner throughout all his wars, without Pompey's observing it, he was conquering his enemies by the arms of the Roman citizens, and gaining the citizens by the money of his enemies.

As soon as he had intelligence that the Belgæ, who were the most powerful people in Gaul, and whose territories made up a third part of the whole country, had revolted and assembled a great army, he marched to that quarter with incredible expedition. He found them ravaging the lands of those Gauls who were allies of Rome, defeated the main body, which made but a feeble resistance, and killed such numbers, that lakes and rivers were filled with the dead, and bridges were formed of their bodies. Such of the insurgents as dwelt upon the sea-coast, surrendered without opposition.

From thence he led his army against the Nervii *, who live among thick woods. After they had secured their families and most valuable goods, in the best manner they could, in the heart of a large forest, at a great distance from the enemy, they marched, to the number of sixty thousand, and fell upon Cæsar, as he was fortifying his camp, and had not the least notion of so sudden an attack †. They first routed his cavalry, and then surrounded the twelfth and seventh legions, and killed all the officers. Had not Cæsar snatched a buckler from one of his own men, forced his

* Their country is now called Hainault and Cambresis.

† As this attack was unexpected, Cæsar had, in a manner, every thing to do at the same instant. The banner was to be erected, the charge sounded, the soldiers at a distance recalled, the army drawn up, and the signal given. In this surprise he ran from place to place, exhorting his men to remember their former valour; and having drawn them up in the best manner he could, caused the signal to be given. The legionaries made a vigorous resistance; but as the enemy seemed determined either to conquer or die, the success was different in different places. In the left wing the ninth and the tenth legions did wonders, drove the Atrebatés into a neighbouring river, and made a great slaughter of them. In another place, the eighth and eleventh legions repulsed the

his way through the combatants before him, and rushed upon the barbarians; or had not the tenth legion*, seeing his danger, run from the heights where they were posted, and mowed down the enemies' ranks, in all probability not one Roman would have survived the battle. But though, encouraged by this bold act of Cæsar, they fought with a spirit above their strength, they were notable to make the Nervii turn their backs. Those brave men maintained their ground, and were hewed to pieces upon the spot. It is said, that out of sixty thousand not above five hundred were saved, and out of four hundred Nervian senators not above three.

Upon the news of this great victory, the senate of Rome decreed that sacrifices should be offered, and all manner of festivities kept up, for fifteen days together, which was a longer term of rejoicing than had ever been known before. Indeed, the danger appeared very great, on account of so many nations rising at once; and as Cæsar was the man who surmounted it, the affection the people had for him made the rejoicing more brilliant. After he had settled the affairs of Gaul, on the other side the Alps, he crossed them again, and wintered near the Po, in order to maintain his interest in Rome; where the candidates for the great offices of state were supplied with money out of his funds to corrupt the people, and after they had carried their election, did every thing to extend his power. Nay, the greatest and most illustrious per-

the Vermandui, and drove them before them. But in the right wing the seventh and twelfth legions suffered extremely. They were entirely surrounded by the Nervii, all the centurions of the fourth cohort being slain, and most of the other officers wounded. In this extremity, Cæsar snatched a buckler from one of the private men, put himself at the head of his broken wing, and being joined by the two legions which he had left to guard the baggage, fell upon the Nervii, already fatigued, with fresh vigour, and made a dreadful havock of them.

* In the original it is the twelfth; but it appears from the second book of Cæsar's Commentaries, that we should read here *duodecimo*, not *duodecimato*. Indeed the Paris manuscript has *duodecimo*.

sonages

sonages went to pay their court to him at Lucca, among whom were Pompey, Crassus, Appius, governor of Sardinia, and Nepos, proconsul in Spain. So that there were a hundred and twenty licitors attending their masters, and above two hundred senators honoured him with their assiduities. After they had fixed upon a plan of business, they parted. Pompey and Crassus were to be consuls the year ensuing, and to get Cæsar's government prolonged for five years more, with supplies out of the treasury for his occasions. The last particular appeared extremely absurd to all men of sense. They who received so much of Cæsar's money, persuaded the senate to give him money, as if he was in want of it; or rather, they insisted it should be done, and every honest man sighed inwardly while he suffered the decree to pass. Cato, indeed was absent, having been sent with a commission to Cyprus on purpose that he might be out of the way. But Favonius, who trode in Cato's steps, vigorously opposed those measures; and when he found that his opposition availed nothing, he left the house, and applied to the people, exclaiming against such pernicious counsels. No one, however, attended to him; some being overawed by Pompey and Crassus, and others influenced by regard for Cæsar, in whose smile alone they lived, and all their hopes flourished.

Cæsar, at his return to his army in Gaul, found another furious war lighted up in the country; the Usipetes and the Teuchteri*, two great German nations, having crossed the Rhine to make conquests. The account of the affair with them we shall take from
Cæsar's

* The people of the *March* and of Westphalia, and those of Munster and Cleves.

This war happened under the consulship of Crassus and Pompey, which was in the year of Rome 693. But there were several intermediate transactions of great importance, which Plutarch has omitted, viz. The reduction of the Advatici by Cæsar; of seven other nations by P. Crassus, the son of the triumvir; offers of submission from several nations beyond the Rhine; the attempt upon Galba in his winter quarters at Octodurus, and his brave defence

Cæsar's own Commentaries*. These barbarians sent deputies to him to propose a suspension of arms, which was granted them. Nevertheless they attacked him as he was making an excursion. With only eight hundred horse, however, who were not prepared for an engagement, he beat their cavalry, which consisted of five thousand. Next day they sent other deputies to apologize for what had happened, but without any other intention than that of deceiving him again. These agents of theirs he detained, and marched immediately against them; thinking it absurd to stand upon honour with such perfidious men, who had not scrupled to violate the truce. Yet Canusius writes, that when the senate were voting a public thanksgiving and processions on account of the victory, Cato proposed that Cæsar should be delivered up to the barbarians, to expiate that breach of faith, and make the divine vengeance fall upon its author, rather than upon Rome.

Of the barbarians that had passed the Rhine, there were four hundred thousand killed. The few who escaped, repassed the river, and were sheltered by a people of Germany called Sicambri. Cæsar laid hold on his pretence against that people, but his true motive was an avidity of fame, to be the first Roman that ever crossed the Rhine in an hostile manner. In pursuance of his design, he threw a bridge over it, though it was remarkably wide in that place, and at the same time so rough and rapid, that it carried down with it trunks of trees, and other timber, which much shocked and weakened the pillars of his bridge. But he drove great piles of wood into the bottom of the river above the bridge, both to resist

defence and victory; the severe chastisement of the Veneti, who had revolted; and the complete reduction of Aquitaine. These particulars are contained in part of the second and the whole third book of the war in Gaul.

* Ruault justly observes, that Plutarch should not have called the Commentaries *ἱστοριαι*, as he does here, but *ἰστορηματα*, as usual.
the

the impression of such bodies, and to break the force of the torrent. By these means he exhibited a spectacle astonishing to thought, so immense a bridge finished in ten days. His army passed over it without opposition, the Suevi and the Sicambri, the most warlike nations in Germany, having retired into the heart of their forests, and concealed themselves in cavities overhung with wood. He laid waste the enemy's country with fire, and confirmed the better disposed Germans in the interest of Rome*; after which he returned into Gaul, having spent no more than eighteen days in Germany.

But his expedition into Britain discovered the most daring spirit of enterprise. For he was the first who entered the western ocean with a fleet, and embarking his troops on the Atlantic, carried war into an island, whose very existence was doubted. Some writers had represented it so incredibly large, that others contested its being, and considered both the name and the thing as a fiction. Yet Cæsar attempted to conquer it, and to extend the Roman empire beyond the bounds of the habitable world. He sailed thither twice from the opposite coast in Gaul, and fought many battles, by which the Britons suffered more than the Romans gained, for there was nothing worth taking from a people who were so poor, and lived in so much wretchedness †. He did not, however, terminate the war in the manner he could have wished: he only received hostages of the king, and appointed the tribute the island was to pay, and then returned to Gaul.

There he received letters, which were going to be sent over to him, and by which his friends in Rome informed him, that his daughter, the wife of Pompey, had lately died in child-bed. This was a great affliction both to Pompey and Cæsar. Their friends, too, were

* The Ubii, the people of Cologne.

† It does not appear that there was much corn in Britain in Cæsar's time; for the inhabitants, he says, lived chiefly on milk and flesh. *Lacte et carne vivunt.*

very sensibly concerned to see that alliance dissolved which kept up the peace and harmony of the state, otherwise in a very unsettled condition. For the child survived the mother only a few days. The people took the body of Julia, and carried it, notwithstanding the prohibition of the tribunes, to the *Campus Martius*, where it was interred.

As Cæsar's army was now very large*, he was forced to divide it for the convenience of winter-quarters; after which he took the road to Italy, according to custom. But he had not been long gone, before the Gauls, rising again, traversed the country with considerable armies, fell upon the Roman quarters with great fury, and insulted their entrenchments. The most numerous and the strongest body of the insurgents was that under Ambiorix, who attacked Cotta and Titurius in their camp, and cut them off with their whole party. After which, he went and besieged the legion under the command of Q. Cicero, with sixty thousand men; and though the spirit of those brave Romans made a resistance above their strength, they were very near being taken, for they were all wounded.

Cæsar, who was at a great distance, at last getting intelligence of their danger, returned with all expedition; and having collected a body of men, which did not exceed seven thousand, hastened to the relief of Cicero. The Gauls, who were not ignorant of his motions, raised the siege and went to meet him; for they despised the smallness of his force, and were confident of victory. Cæsar, to deceive them, made a

* This army consisted of eight legions; and as there was almost a famine in the country, the consequence of excessive drought, Cæsar was obliged to separate his troops for their better subsistence. He was therefore under the necessity of fixing the quarters at such a distance, which would otherwise have been impolitic. He tells us, (lib. v.) that all the legions, except one, which was in a quiet country, were posted within the compass of a hundred miles.

feint as if he fled, till he came to a place convenient for a small army to engage a great one, and there he fortified his camp. He gave his men strict orders not to fight, but to throw up a strong rampart, and to barricade their gates in the securest manner; contriving by all these manœuvres to increase the enemy's contempt of him. It succeeded as he wished; the Gauls came up with great insolence and disorder to attack his trenches. Then Cæsar making a sudden sally, defeated and destroyed the greatest part of them. This success laid the spirit of revolt in those parts: and for farther security he remained all the winter in Gaul, visiting all the quarters, and keeping a sharp eye upon every motion towards war. Besides, he received a reinforcement of three legions in the room of those he had lost; two of which were lent him by Pompey, and one lately raised in Cisalpine Gaul.

After this *, the seeds of hostilities, which had long before been privately scattered in the more distant parts of the country, by the chiefs of the more warlike nations, shot up into one of the greatest and most dangerous wars that was ever seen in Gaul; whether we consider the number of troops and store of arms, the treasures amassed for the war, or the strength of the towns and fastnesses they occupied. Besides, it was then the most severe season of the year; the rivers were covered with ice, the forests with snow, and the fields overflowed in such a manner that they looked like so many ponds; the roads lay concealed in snow, or in floods disembogued by the lakes and rivers. So that it seemed impossible for Cæsar to march, or to pursue any other operations against them.

* Plutarch passes over the whole sixth book of Cæsar's Commentaries, as he had done the third. Many considerable events happened between the victory last mentioned, and the affair with Vercingetorix; such as the defeat of the Treviri, Cæsar's second passage over the Rhine, and the pursuit of Ambiorix.

Many

Many nations had entered into the league; the principal of which were the Arverni* and Carnutes †. The chief direction of the war was given to Vercingetorix, whose father the Gauls had put to death, for attempting at monarchy. Vercingetorix having divided his forces into several parts, and given them in charge to his lieutenants, had the country at command as far as the Arar. His intention was to raise all Gaul against Cæsar, now when his enemies were rising against him at Rome. But had he stayed a little longer, till Cæsar was actually engaged in the civil war, the terrors of the Gauls would not have been less dreadful to Italy now than those of the Cimbri were formerly.

Cæsar, who knew perfectly how to avail himself of every advantage in war, particularly of time, was no sooner informed of this great defection, than he set out to chastise its authors; and by the swiftness of his march, in spite of all the difficulties of a severe winter, he shewed the barbarians that his troops could neither be conquered nor resisted. For where a courier could scarcely have been supposed to come in many days, Cæsar was seen with his whole army, ravaging the country, destroying the castles, storming the cities, and receiving the submission of such as repented. Thus he went on till the Edui ‡ also revolted, who had styled themselves brothers to the Romans, and had been treated with particular regard. Their joining the insurgents spread uneasiness and dismay through Cæsar's army. He, therefore, decamped in all haste, and traversed the country of the Lingones ||, in order to come into that of the Sequani §, who were fast friends, and nearer to Italy than the rest of the Gauls.

* The people of Auvergne, particularly those of Clermont and St. Flour.

† The people of Chartres and Orleans.

‡ The people of Autun, Lyons, Macon, Chalons upon Sône, and Nevers.

|| The district of Langres.

§ The district of Besançon.

The enemy followed him thither in prodigious numbers, and surrounded him. Cæsar, without being in the least disconcerted, sustained the conflict, and after a long and bloody action, in which the Germans were particularly serviceable to him, gave them a total defeat *. But he seems to have received some check at first, for the Arverni still shew a sword suspended in one of their temples, which they declare was taken from Cæsar. His friends pointed it out to him afterwards, but he only laughed; and when they were for having it taken down, he would not suffer it, because he considered it as a thing consecrated to the gods.

Most of those who escaped out of the battle, retired into Alesia † with their king. Cæsar immediately invested the town, though it appeared impregnable, as well on account of the height of the walls, as the number of troops there was to defend it. During the siege he found himself exposed to a danger from without, which makes imagination giddy to think on. All the bravest men in Gaul assembled from every quarter, and came armed to the relief of the place, to the number of three hundred thousand; and there were not less than seventy thousand combatants within the walls. Thus shut up between two armies, he was forced to draw two lines of circumvallation, the interior one against the town, and that without against the troops that came to its succour; for, could the two armies have joined, he had been absolutely lost. This dangerous action at Alesia contributed to Cæsar's renown on many accounts. Indeed, he exerted a more adventurous courage and greater generalship, than on any other occasion. But what seems very astonishing, is, that he could engage and conquer so many myriads without, and keep the action a secret to

* This passage in the original is corrupt or defective. We have endeavoured to supply that defect, by reading, with M. Dacier, *ἰσχυροῦς*, instead of *ἀλλοῦς*, which is agreeable to Cæsar's own account of the battle, in the seventh book of his Commentaries.

† Cæsar calls it Alexia, now Alise, near Flavigny.

the troops in the town *. It is still more wonderful that the Romans, who were left before the walls, should not know it, till the victory was announced by the cries of the men in Alesia and the lamentations of the women, who saw the Romans on each side of the town bringing to their camp a number of shields adorned with gold and silver, helmets stained with blood, drinking-vessels, and tents of the Gaulish fashion. Thus did this vast multitude vanish and disappear like a phantom, or a dream, the greatest part being killed on the spot.

The besieged, after having given both themselves and Cæsar much trouble, at last surrendered. Their general, Vercingetorix, armed himself and equipped his horse in the most magnificent manner, and then sallied out at the gate. After he had taken some circuits about Cæsar, as he sat upon the tribunal, he dismounted, put off his armour, and placed himself at Cæsar's feet, where he remained in profound silence, till Cæsar ordered a guard to take him away, and keep him for his triumph.

Cæsar had been some-time resolved to ruin Pompey, and Pompey to destroy Cæsar. For Crassus, who alone could have taken up the conqueror, being killed in the Parthian war, there remained nothing for Cæsar to do, to make himself the greatest of mankind, but to annihilate him that was so; nor for Pompey to prevent it, but to take off the man he feared. It is true, it was no long time that Pompey had entertained any fear of him; he had rather looked upon him with contempt, imagining he could as easily pull him down as he had set him up: Whereas Cæsar, from the first, designing to ruin his rivals, had retired at a distance, like a champion, for exercise. By long service and great achievements in the wars of Gaul, he had so improved his army, and his own reputation too, that

* Cæsar says, those in the town had a distinct view of the battle.

he was considered as on a footing with Pompey ; and he found pretences for carrying his enterprize into execution, in the times of the misgovernment at Rome. These were partly furnished by Pompey himself: and indeed all ranks of men were so corrupted, that tables were publicly set out, upon which the candidates for offices were professedly ready to pay the people the price of their votes ; and the people came not only to give their voices for the man who had bought them, but with all manner of offensive weapons to fight for him. Hence it often happened, that they did not part without polluting the tribunal with blood and murder, and the city was a perpetual scene of anarchy. In this dismal situation of things, in these storms of epidemic madness, wise men thought it would be happy if they ended in nothing worse than monarchy. Nay, there were many who scrupled not to declare publicly, that monarchy was the only cure for the desperate disorders of the state, and that the physician ought to be pitched upon who would apply that remedy with the gentlest hand ; by which they hinted at Pompey.

Pompey, in all his discourse, pretended to decline the honour of a dictatorship, though at the same time every step he took was directed that way. Cato, understanding his drift, persuaded the senate to declare him sole consul ; that, satisfied with a kind of monarchy more agreeable to law, he might not adopt any violent measures to make himself dictator. The senate not only agreed to this, but continued to him his governments of Spain and Africa, the administration of which he committed to his lieutenants; keeping armies there, for whose maintenance he was allowed a thousand talents a year out of the public treasury.

Upon this, Cæsar applied, by his friends, for another consulship, and for the continuance of his commission in Gaul answerable to that of Pompey. As Pompey at first was silent, Marcellus and Lentulus, who hated Cæsar on other accounts, opposed it with
great

great violence, omitting nothing, whether right or wrong, that might reflect dishonour upon him. For they disfranchised the inhabitants of Novocomum in Gaul, which had lately been erected into a colony by Cæsar; and Marcellus, then consul, caused one of their senators, who was come with some complaints to Rome, to be beaten with rods, and telling him, "The marks on his back were so many additional proofs that he was not a Roman citizen," bade him go and shew them to Cæsar.

But, after the consulship of Marcellus, Cæsar opened the treasures he had amassed in Gaul, to all that were concerned in the administration, and satisfied their utmost wishes; he paid off the vast debts of Curio the tribune; he presented the consul Paulus with fifteen hundred talents, which he employed in building the celebrated public hall near the *Forum*, in the place where that of Fulvius had stood. Pompey, now alarmed at the increase of Cæsar's faction, openly exerted his own interest, and that of his friends, to procure an order for a successor to Cæsar in Gaul. He also sent to demand the troops he had lent him for his wars in that country, and Cæsar returned them, with a gratuity of two hundred and fifty *drachmas* to each man.

Those who conducted these troops back, spread reports among the people which were neither favourable nor fair with respect to Cæsar, and which ruined Pompey with vain hopes. They asserted that Pompey had the hearts of all Cæsar's army, and that if envy and a corrupt administration hindered him from gaining what he desired at Rome, the forces in Gaul were at his service, and would declare for him immediately upon their entering Italy; so obnoxious was Cæsar become, by hurrying them perpetually from one expedition to another, and by the suspicions they had of his aiming at absolute power.

Pompey was so much elated with these assurances, that he neglected to levy troops, as if he had nothing to fear, and opposed his enemy only with speeches

and decrees, which Cæsar made no account of. Nay, we are told, that a centurion whom Cæsar had sent to Rome, waiting at the door of the senate-house for the result of the deliberations, and being informed that the senate would not give Cæsar a longer term in his commission, laid his hand upon his sword, and said, "But this shall give it."

Indeed, Cæsar's requisitions had a great appearance of justice and honour. He proposed to lay down his arms, on condition Pompey would do the same, and that they should both, as private citizens, leave it to their country to reward their services. For to deprive him of his commission and troops, and continue Pompey's, was to give absolute power to the one, to which the other was unjustly accused of aspiring. Curio, who made these propositions to the people in behalf of Cæsar, was received with the loudest plaudits; and there were some who even threw chaplets of flowers upon him, as they would upon a champion victorious in the ring.

Antony, one of the tribunes of the people, then produced a letter from Cæsar to the same purport, and caused it to be read, notwithstanding the opposition it met with from the consuls*. Hereupon, Scipio, Pompey's father-in-law, proposed in the senate, that if Cæsar did not lay down his arms by such a day, he should be declared an enemy to the state; and the consuls putting it to the question, "Whether Pompey should dismiss his forces?" and again, "Whether Cæsar should disband his?" few of the members were for the first, and almost all for the second†. After which, Antony put the question, "Whether both should lay down their commissions?" and all with one voice answered in the affirmative. But

* Instead of *δια των υπατων*, some MSS. give us *βια των υπατων*.

† Dio says, there was not a man for the first question, whereas the whole house was for the second, except Cælius and Curio. Nor is this to be wondered at; Pompey was then at the gates of Rome with his army.

the violent rage of Scipio, and the clamours of the consul Lentulus, who cried out, that, "Not decrees but arms should be employed against a public robber," made the senate break up; and on account of the unhappy dissension, all ranks of people put on black, as in a time of public mourning.

Soon after this, other letters arrived from Cæsar with more moderate proposals. He offered to abandon all the rest, provided they would continue to him the government of Cisalpine Gaul and Illyricum, with two legions, till he could apply for a second consulship. And Cicero, who was lately returned from Cilicia, and very desirous of effecting a reconciliation, used all possible means to soften Pompey. Pompey agreed to all but the article of the two legions; and Cicero endeavoured to accommodate the matter, by persuading Cæsar's friends to be satisfied with the two provinces and six thousand soldiers only. Pompey was on the point of accepting the compromise, when Lentulus the consul rejecting it with disdain, treated Antony and Curio with great indignity, and drove them out of the senate-house. Thus he furnished Cæsar with the most plausible argument imaginable, and he failed not to make use of it to exasperate his troops, by shewing them persons of distinction, and magistrates, obliged to fly in hired carriages, and in the habit of slaves*; for their fears had made them leave Rome in that disguise.

Cæsar had not then with him above three hundred horse and five thousand foot. The rest of his forces were left on the other side of the Alps, and he had sent them orders to join him. But he saw the beginning of his enterprise; and the attack that he meditated did not require any great numbers: his enemies were rather to be struck with consternation by the boldness and expedition with which he began his operations; for an unexpected movement would be more likely to

* Cassius Longinus went with them in the same disguise.

make

make an impression upon them then, than great preparations afterwards. He therefore ordered his lieutenants and other officers to take their swords without any other armour, and make themselves masters of Ariminum, a great city in Gaul, but to take all possible care that no blood should be shed or disturbance raised. Hortensius was at the head of this party. As for himself, he spent the day at a public show of gladiators, and a little before evening bathed, and then went into the apartment where he entertained company. When it was growing dark, he left the company, after having desired them to make merry till his return, which they would not have long to wait for. To some of his friends he had given previous notice to follow him; not altogether, but by different ways. Then taking a hired carriage, he set out a different way from that which led to Ariminum, and turned into that road afterwards.

When he arrived at the banks of the Rubicon, which divides Cisalpine Gaul from the rest of Italy, his reflections became more interesting in proportion as the danger drew near. Staggered by the greatness of his attempt, he stopped, to weigh with himself its inconveniences; and as he stood revolving in silence the arguments on both sides, he many times changed his opinion. After which, he deliberated upon it with such of his friends as were by, among whom was Asinius Pollio; enumerating the calamities which the passage of that river would bring upon the world, and the reflections that might be made upon it by posterity. At last, upon some sudden impulse, bidding adieu to his reasonings, and plunging into the abyss of futurity, in the words of those who embark in doubtful and arduous enterprises, he cried out, "The die is cast," and immediately passed the river. He travelled so fast the rest of the way, that he reached Ariminum before day-light, and took it. It is said, that the preceding night he had a most abominable dream; he thought he lay with his mother.

After

After the taking of Ariminum, as if war had opened wide its gates both by sea and land, and Cæsar, by going beyond the bounds of his province, had infringed the laws of his country; not individuals were seen, as on other occasions, wandering in distraction about Italy, but whole cities broken up, and seeking refuge by flight. Most of the tumultuous tide flowed into Rome, and it was so filled with the hasty conflux of the circling people, that amidst the violent agitation it would hardly either obey the magistrate, or listen to the voice of reason, but was in the utmost danger of falling by its own violence. For the whole was a prey to contrary passions, and the most violent convulsions: Those who favoured these disorders were not satisfied with enjoying them in private, but reproached the other party, amidst their fears and sorrows, and insulted them with menaces of what was to come; which is the necessary consequence of such troubles in a great city.

Pompey himself, who was already confounded at the turn things had taken, was still more disturbed by a variety of censures on his conduct. Some said, he justly suffered for exalting Cæsar against himself and his country; others, for permitting Lentulus to over-rule him, when Cæsar departed from his first demands, and offered equitable terms of peace. Favonius went so far as to bid him "stamp with his foot;" alluding to a vaunting speech he had made in the senate, in which he bade them take no thought about preparations for the war; for, as soon as he marched out of Rome, if he did but stamp with his foot, he should fill Italy with his legions.

Pompey, however, at that time was not inferior in numbers to Cæsar, but his partisans would not suffer him to proceed according to his own opinion. By false reports and groundless terrors, as if the enemy was at the gates, and had carried all before him, they forced him along with the general torrent. He had it decreed, therefore, that things were in a tumultuous state,

state, and nothing to be expected but hostilities, and then left Rome, having first ordered the senate, and every man to follow, who preferred his country and liberty to the rod of a tyrant. The consuls too fled with him, without offering the sacrifices which custom required before they took their departure from Rome. Most of the senators snatched up those things in their houses that were next at hand, as if the whole was not their own, and joined in the flight. Nay, there were some, who before were well affected to Cæsar, that in the present terror changed sides, and suffered themselves without necessity to be carried away by the torrent. What a miserable spectacle was the city then! In so dreadful a tempest, like a ship abandoned by its pilots, tost about at all adventures, and at the mercy of the winds and seas. But though flight was so unpromising an alternative, such was the love the Romans had for Pompey, that they considered the place he retired to as their country, and Rome as the camp of Cæsar. For even Labienus, one of Cæsar's principal friends, who, in quality of his lieutenant, had served under him with the greatest alacrity in the wars of Gaul, now went over to Pompey. Nevertheless, Cæsar sent him his money and his equipage.

After this, Cæsar invested Corfinium, where Domitius * with thirty cohorts commanded for Pompey. Domitius in despair ordered a servant of his, who was his physician, to give him poison. He took the draught prepared for him, as a sure means of death; but, soon after, hearing of Cæsar's extraordinary clemency to his prisoners, he lamented his own case and the hasty resolution he had taken. Upon which the physician removed his fears, by assuring him that what he had drank was a sleeping potion, not a deadly one. This gave him such spirits, that he rose up and

* Lucius Domitius Ahenobarbus was nominated to succeed Cæsar, pursuant to the decree of the senate, in the government of Transalpine Gaul; but he imprudently shut himself up in Corfinium before he left Italy.

went to Cæsar. But though Cæsar pardoned him, and gave him his hand, he soon revolted, and repaired again to Pompey.

The news of this transaction being brought to Rome, gave great relief to the minds of the people, and many who had fled came back again. In the mean time Cæsar having added to his own army the troops of Domitius, and all others that Pompey had left in garrison, was strong enough to march against Pompey himself. The latter, however, did not wait for him; but returned to Brundisium, from whence he sent the consuls with part of the forces to Dyrrhachium, and a little after, upon the approach of Cæsar, sailed thither himself, as we have related at large in his life. Cæsar would have followed him immediately, but he wanted ships. He therefore returned to Rome, with the glory of having reduced Italy in sixty days without spilling a drop of blood.

Finding the city in a more settled condition than he expected, and many senators there, he addressed them in a mild and gracious manner, and desired them to send deputies to Pompey to offer honourable terms of peace. But not one of them would take upon him the commission; whether it was that they were afraid of Pompey whom they had deserted, or whether they thought Cæsar not in earnest in the proposal, and that he only made it to save appearances. As Metellus the tribune opposed his taking money out of the public treasury, and alleged some laws against it, Cæsar said, "Arms and laws do not flourish together. If you are not pleased at what I am about, you have nothing to do but to withdraw: Indeed, war will not bear much liberty of speech. When I say this, I am departing from my own right: For you and all whom I have found exciting a spirit of faction against me, are at my disposal." Saying this, he approached the doors of the treasury, and as the keys were not produced, he sent for workmen to break them

them open. Metellus opposed him again, and some praised his firmness; but Cæsar, raising his voice, threatened to put him to death, if he gave him any farther trouble: "And, young man," said he, "you are not ignorant that this is harder for me to say than to do." Metellus, terrified with this menace, retired, and afterwards Cæsar was easily and readily supplied with every thing necessary for the war.

His first movement was to Spain, from whence he was resolved to drive Afranius and Varro, Pompey's lieutenants, and after having made himself master of their troops and provinces, to march against Pompey, without leaving any enemy behind him. In the course of this expedition, his life was often in danger from ambuscades, and his army had to combat with famine, yet he continued his operations against the enemy, either by pursuit, or offering them battle, or forming lines of circumvallation about them, till he forced their camp, and added their troops to his own. The officers made their escape, and retired to Pompey.

Upon his return to Rome, his father-in-law Piso pressed him to send deputies to Pompey to treat of an accommodation; but Isauricus, to make his court to Cæsar, opposed it. The senate declared him dictator, and while he held that office, he recalled the exiles; he restored to their honours the children of those who had suffered under Sylla; and relieved debtors by cancelling part of the usury. These, and a few more, were his acts during his dictatorship, which he laid down in eleven days. After this, he caused himself to be declared consul with Servilius Isauricus, and then went to prosecute the war. He marched so fast to Brundisium, that all his troops could not keep up with him. However, he embarked with only six hundred select horse and five legions. It was at the time of the winter solstice, the beginning of January, which answers to the Athenian month *Poseideon*, that he set sail. He crossed the Ionian, made himself master of Oricum

cum and Apollonia, and sent back * his ships to Brundisium to bring over the forces that were left behind. But those troops, exhausted with fatigue, and tired out with the multitude of enemies they had to engage with, broke out into complaints against Cæsar, as they were upon their march to the port. "Whither will this man lead us," said they, "and where will be the end of our labours? Will he harass us for ever, as if we had limbs of stone, or bodies of iron? But iron itself yields to repeated blows; our very shields and cuirasses call out for rest. Will not Cæsar learn from our wounds that we are mortal, that we have the same feelings, and are liable to the same impressions with other men. The gods themselves cannot force the seasons, or clear the winter seas of storms and tempests. And it is in this season that he would expose us, as if he was flying from his enemies, rather than pursuing them."

Amidst such discourse as this, they moved on slowly to Brundisium. But when they arrived there, and found that Cæsar was gone, they changed their language, and reproached themselves as traitors to their general. They vented their anger upon their officers, too, for not hastening their march. And sitting upon the cliffs, they kept their eyes upon the sea towards Epirus, to see if they could discover the transports that were to fetch them.

Meantime Cæsar, not having a sufficient force at Apollonia to make head against the enemy, and seeing the troops at Brundisium delayed to join him, to relieve himself from the anxiety and perplexity he was in, undertook a most astonishing enterprise. Though the sea was covered with the enemy's fleets, he resolved to embark in a vessel of twelve oars, without ac-

* He sent them back under the conduct of Calenus. That officer losing the opportunity of the wind, fell in with Bibulus, who took thirty of his ships, and burnt them all, together with their pilots and mariners, in order to intimidate the rest.

quainting

quainting any person with his intention, and sail to Brundisium *. In the night, therefore, he took the habit of a slave, and throwing himself into the vessel like a man of no account, sat there in silence. They fell down the river Anias † for the sea, where the entrance is generally easy, because the land-wind rising in a morning, used to beat off the waves of the sea and smooth the mouth of the river. But unluckily that night a strong sea-wind sprung up which overpowered that from the land; so that by the rage of the sea and the contraaction of the stream, the river became extremely rough; the waves dashed against each other with a tumultuous noise, and formed such dangerous eddies, that the pilot despaired of making good his passage, and ordered the mariners to turn back. Cæsar perceiving this, rose up, and shewing himself to the pilot, who was greatly astonished at the sight of him, said, "Go forward, my friend, and fear nothing; thou carriest Cæsar and his fortune." The mariners then forgot the storm, and plying their oars with the utmost vigour and alacrity, endeavoured to overcome the resistance of the waves. But such was their violence at the mouth of the river, and the water flowed so fast into the vessel, that Cæsar at last, though with great reluctance, permitted the pilot to turn back. Upon his return to his camp, the soldiers met him in crowds, pouring out their complaints, and expressing the greatest concern that he did not assure himself of conquering with them only, but, in distrust of their support, gave himself so much unea-

* Most historians blame this as a rash action; and Cæsar himself, in his Commentaries, makes no mention of this, or of another less dangerous attempt, which is related by Suetonius. While he was making war in Gaul, upon advice that the Gauls had surrounded his army in his absence, he dressed himself like a native of the country, and in that disguise passed through the enemy's centinels and troops to his own camp.

† Strabo, in his seventh book (ed. Par. p. 316. BC.), calls this river *Aous*. In Polybius it is called *Lous*; but that is a corruption, the A being changed, by the fault of the transcriber, into an A.

finess and exposed his person to so much danger on account of the absent.

Soon after, Antony arrived from Brundisium with the troops*. Cæsar, then in the highest spirits, offered battle to Pompey, who was encamped in an advantageous manner, and abundantly supplied with provisions both from sea and land; whereas Cæsar at first had no great plenty, and afterwards was in extreme want. The soldiers, however, found great relief from a root † in the adjoining fields, which they prepared in milk. Sometimes they made it into bread, and going up to the enemy's advanced guards, threw it among them, and declared, "That as long as the earth produced such roots, they would certainly besiege Pompey."

Pompey would not suffer either such bread to be produced, or such speeches to be reported in his camp; for his men were already discouraged, and ready to shudder at the thought of the impenetrable hardness of Cæsar's troops, who could bear as much as so many wild beasts. There were frequent skirmishes about Pompey's entrenchments ‡, and Cæsar had the advantage in them all, except one, in which his party was forced to fly with such precipitation, that he was in danger of having his camp taken. Pompey headed

* Antony and Calenus embarked on board the vessels which had escaped Bibulus, eight hundred horse and four legions, that is, three old ones, and one that had been newly raised; and when they were landed, Antony sent back the ships for the rest of the forces.

† This root was called *Clera*. Some of Cæsar's soldiers, who had served in Sardinia, had there learnt to make bread of it.

‡ Cæsar observed an old camp which he had occupied in the place where Pompey was inclosed, and afterwards abandoned. Upon his quitting it, Pompey had taken possession of it, and left a legion to guard it. This post Cæsar attempted to reduce, and it was in this attempt that he suffered so much loss. He lost nine hundred and sixty foot, four hundred horse, among whom were several Roman knights, five tribunes, and thirty-two centurions. We mentioned just now that Pompey was inclosed, as in fact he was on the land-side, by a line of circumvallation drawn by Cæsar.

the attack in person, and not a man could stand before him. He drove them upon their own lines in the utmost confusion, and filled their trenches with the dead.

Cæsar ran to meet them, and would have rallied the fugitives, but it was not in his power. He laid hold on the ensign-staves to stop them, and some left them in his hands, and others threw them upon the ground, inasmuch that no less than thirty-two standards were taken. Cæsar himself was very near losing his life; for having laid hold of a tall and strong man, to stop him and make him face about, the soldier in his terror and confusion lifted up his sword to strike him; but Cæsar's armour-bearer prevented it by a blow which cut off his arm.

Cæsar saw his affairs that day in so bad a posture, that after Pompey (either through too much caution, or the caprice of fortune, instead of giving the finishing stroke to so great an action) had stopped on shutting up the enemy within their intrenchments, and founded a retreat, he said to his friends as he withdrew, "This day victory would have declared for the enemy, if they had but a general who knew how to conquer." He sought repose in his tent, but it proved the most melancholy night of his life. For he gave himself up to endless reflections on his own misconduct in the war. He considered how wrong it was, when the wide countries and rich cities of Macedonia and Thessaly were before him, to confine himself to so narrow a scene of action, and sit still by the sea, while the enemy's fleets had the superiority, and in a place where he suffered the inconveniences of a siege from the want of provisions, rather than besiege the enemy by his arms. Thus agitated and distressed by the perplexities and difficulties of his situation, he resolved to decamp, and march against Scipio in Macedonia; concluding, that he should either draw Pompey after him, and force him to fight where he could not receive supplies as he had done, from the sea; or else that he should

should easily crush Scipio, if he found him unsupported.

Pompey's troops and officers were greatly elated at this retreat of Cæsar; they considered it as a flight and an acknowledgment that he was beaten, and therefore wanted to pursue. But Pompey himself was unwilling to hazard a battle of such consequence. He was well provided with every thing requisite for waiting the advantages of time, and for that reason chose, by protracting the war, to wear out the little vigour the enemy had left. The most valuable of Cæsar's troops had, indeed, an experience and courage which were irresistible in the field; but age had made them unfit for long marches, for throwing up entrenchments, for attacking walls, and passing whole nights under arms. They were too unwieldy to endure much fatigue, and their inclination for labour lessened with their strength. Besides, there was said to be a contagious distemper among them, which arose from their strange and bad diet: and, what was still a more important circumstance, Cæsar wanted both money and provisions, so that it seemed as if he must shortly fall of himself.

These were Pompey's reasons for declining a battle; but not a man, except Cato, was of his opinion; and he, only because he was willing to spare the blood of his countrymen: for when he saw the bodies of the enemy, who fell in the late action, to the number of a thousand, lie dead upon the field, he covered his face, and retired, weeping. All the rest censured Pompey for not deciding the affair immediately with the sword, calling him *Agamemnon*, and *King of Kings*, as if he was unwilling to be deprived of the monarchy he was in possession of, and delighted to see so many generals waiting his orders, and attending to pay their court. Favonius, who affected to imitate Cato's bold manner of speaking, but carried it much too far, lamented that Pompey's wanting to keep the kingly state he had got, would prevent their eating figs that year at Tusculum. And Afranius, lately come from

Spain, where he had succeeded so ill in his command, that he was accused of having been bribed to betray his army, asked Pompey, "Why he did not fight that merchant who trafficked in provinces?"

Piqued at these reproaches, Pompey, against his own judgment, marched after Cæsar, who proceeded on his route with great difficulty; for, on account of his late loss, all looked upon him with contempt, and refused to supply him with provisions. However, upon his taking Gomphi *, a town in Thessaly, his troops not only found sufficient refreshments, but recovered surprisingly of the distemper. For, drinking plentifully of the wine they found there, and afterwards marching on in a Bacchanalian manner, the new turn their blood took threw off the disorder, and gave them another habit of body.

When the two armies were encamped opposite each other on the plains of Pharsalia, Pompey returned to his old opinion; in which he was confirmed by some unlucky omens, and an alarming dream. He dreamt that the people of Rome received him in the theatre with loud plaudits, and that he adorned the chapel of *Venus Nicephora*, from whom Cæsar derived his pedigree. But if Pompey was alarmed, those about him were so absurdly sanguine in their expectations of victory, that Domitius, Spinther, and Scipio, quarrelled about Cæsar's pontificate; and numbers sent to Rome to engage houses convenient for consuls and prætors, making themselves sure of being soon raised to those high offices after the war. But the cavalry testified the greatest impatience for a battle; so proud were they of their fine arms, of the condition of their horses, and the beauty and vigour of their persons; besides, they were much more numerous than Cæsar's,

* Cæsar, perceiving of how much importance it was to his service to make himself master of the place, before Pompey or Scipio could come up, gave a general assault, about three in the afternoon; and, though the walls were very high, carried it before sun-set.

being

being seven thousand to one thousand. Nor were the numbers of infantry equal; for Pompey had forty-five thousand, and Cæsar only twenty-two thousand.

Cæsar called his soldiers together, and told them, "That Cornificius was well advanced on his way with two more legions, and that he had fifteen cohorts under the command of Calenus, in the environs of Megara and Athens." He then asked them, "Whether they chose to wait for those troops, or to risque a battle without them?" They answered aloud, "Let us not wait; but do you find out some stratagem to bring the enemy, as soon as possible, to an action."

He began with offering sacrifices of purification for his army, and upon opening the first victim, the soothsayer cried out, "You will fight within three days." Cæsar then asked him, if there appeared in the entrails any auspicious presage? He answered, "It is you who can best resolve that question. The gods announce a great change and revolution in affairs. If you are happy at present, the alteration will be for the worse; if otherwise, expect better fortune." The night before the battle, as he walked the rounds about midnight, there appeared a luminous phenomenon in the air, like a torch, which, as it passed over his camp, flamed out with great brightness, and seemed to fall in that of Pompey. And, in the morning, when the guards were relieved, a tumult was observed in the enemy's camp, not unlike a panic terror. Cæsar, however, so little expected an action that day, that he had ordered his troops to decamp, and march to Scotusa*.

But as they were striking their tents, his scouts rode up, and told him, the enemy were coming down to give him battle. Happy in the news, he made his prayer to the gods, and then drew up his army, which

* Cæsar hoped, by his frequent decampings, to provide better for his troops, and perhaps gain a favourable opportunity of fighting.

he divided into three bodies. Domitius Calvinus was to command the centre, Antony the left wing, and himself the right, where he intended to charge at the head of the tenth legion. Struck with the number and magnificent appearance of the enemy's cavalry, who were posted over against him, he ordered six cohorts privately to advance from the rear. These he placed behind the right wing, and gave them instructions what to do, when the enemy's horse came to charge*. Pompey's disposition was this. He commanded the right wing himself, Domitius the left, and his father-in-law, Scipio, the main body. The whole weight of the cavalry was in the left wing; for they designed to surround the right of the enemy, and to make a successful effort where Cæsar fought in person, thinking no body of foot could be deep enough to bear such a shock, but that they must necessarily be broken in pieces upon the first impression.

When the signal was ready to be given, Pompey ordered his infantry to stand in close order, and wait the enemy's attack, till they were near enough to be reached by the javelin. Cæsar blamed this conduct. He said, Pompey was not aware what weight the swift and fierce advance to the first charge gives to every blow, nor how the courage of each soldier is inflamed by the rapid motion of the whole †.

He was now going to put his troops in motion, when he saw a trusty and experienced centurion encouraging his men to distinguish themselves that day.

* Cæsar and Appian agree, that Pompey posted himself in his left wing, not in the right. It is also highly probable that Afranius, not Lucius Domitius Ahenobarbus, commanded Pompey's right wing. Cæsar does not, indeed, expressly say who commanded there, but he says, "On the right was posted the legion of Cicilia, with the cohorts brought by Afranius out of Spain, which Pompey esteemed the flower of his army." See the notes on the life of Pompey.

† Cæsar was so confident of success, that he ordered his entrenchments to be filled up, assuring his troops that they would be masters of the enemy's camp before night.

Cæsar called him by his name, and said, "What cheer, Caius Crassinus *? How, think you, do we stand?" "Cæsar," said the veteran, in a bold accent, and stretching out his hand, "the victory is ours. It will be a glorious one; and this day I shall have your praise, either alive or dead." So saying he ran in upon the enemy, at the head of his company, which consisted of an hundred and twenty men. He did great execution among the first ranks, and was pressing on with equal fierceness, when one of his antagonists pushed his sword with such force in at his mouth, that the point came out at the nape of his neck.

While the infantry were thus warmly engaged in the centre, the cavalry advanced from Pompey's left wing with great confidence, and extended their squadrons, to surround Cæsar's right wing. But before they could begin the attack †, the six cohorts which Cæsar had placed behind, came up boldly, to receive them. They did not, according to custom, attempt to annoy the enemy with their javelins at a distance, nor strike at the legs and thighs when they came nearer, but aimed at their eyes, and wounded them in the face, agreeably to the orders they had received. For Cæsar hoped that these young cavaliers who had not been used to wars and wounds, and who set a great value upon their beauty, would avoid, above all things, a stroke in that part, and immediately give way, as well on account of the present danger, as the future deformity. The event answered his expectation. They could not bear the spears pointed against their faces, or the steel gleaming upon their eyes, but turned away their faces, and covered them with their hands. This caused such confusion, that at last they fled in the most infamous manner, and ruined the whole cause. For the cohorts which had beaten them

* Plutarch, in the Life of Pompey, calls him *Crassianus*, Cæsar calls him *Crassinus*.

† Cæsar says, they did engage his right wing, and obliged his cavalry to give ground. *Bell. Civil. lib. iii.*

off, surrounded their infantry, and charging them in the rear, as well as in front, soon cut them to pieces.

Pompey, when from the other wing he saw his cavalry put to the rout, was no longer himself, nor did he remember that he was Pompey the Great; but like a man deprived of his senses by some superior power, or struck with consternation at his defeat as the consequence of the divine decree, he retired to his camp without speaking a word, and sat down in his tent to wait the issue. At last, after his whole army was broken and dispersed, and the enemy had gotten upon his ramparts, and were engaged with the troops appointed to defend them, he seemed to come to himself, and cried out, "What! into my camp, too?" Without uttering one word more, he laid aside the ensigns of his dignity as general, and taking a habit that might favour his flight, he made his escape privately. What misfortunes befel him afterwards, how he put himself in the hands of the Egyptians, and was assassinated by the traitors, we shall relate at large in his life.

When Cæsar entered the camp, and saw what numbers of the enemy lay dead, and those they were then dispatching, he said, with a sigh, "This they would have; to this cruel necessity they reduced me: for had Cæsar dismissed his troops, after so many great and successful wars, he would have been condemned as a criminal." Asinius Pollio tells us, Cæsar spoke those words in Latin, and that he afterwards expressed the sense of them in Greek. He adds, that most of those who were killed at the taking of the camp, were slaves, and that there fell not in the battle above six thousand soldiers*. Cæsar incorporated with his own legions most of the infantry that were taken prisoners; and pardoned many persons of distinction. Brutus, who afterwards killed him, was

* Cæsar says, there fell about fifteen thousand of the enemy, and that he took above twenty-four thousand prisoners; and that on his side, the loss amounted only to about two hundred private soldiers, and thirty centurions.

of the number. It is said, that when he did not make his appearance after the battle, Cæsar was very uneasy, and that upon his presenting himself unhurt, he expressed great joy.

Among the many signs that announced this victory, that at Tralles was the most remarkable. There was a statue of Cæsar in the temple of victory; and though the ground about it was naturally hard, and paved with hard stone besides, it is said that a palm tree sprung up at the pedestal of the statue. At Padua, Caius Cornelius, a countryman and acquaintance of Livy, and a celebrated diviner, was observing the flight of birds the day the battle of Pharsalia was fought. By this observation, according to Livy's account, he first discerned the time of action, and said to those that were by, "The great affair now draws to a decision; the two generals are engaged." Then he made another observation, and the signs appeared so clear to him, that he leaped up in the most enthusiastic manner, and cried out, "Cæsar, thou art the conqueror." As the company stood in great astonishment, he took the sacred fillet from his head, and swore, "he would never put it on again, till the event had put his art beyond question." Livy affirms this for a truth.

Cæsar granted the whole nation of Thessaly their liberty, for the sake of the victory he had gained there, and then went in pursuit of Pompey. He bestowed the same privilege upon the Cnidians, in compliment to Theopompus, to whom we are indebted for a collection of fables; and he discharged the inhabitants of Asia from a third part of their imposts.

Upon his arrival at Alexandria, he found Pompey assassinated, and when Theodotus presented the head to him, he turned from the sight with great abhorrence. The signet of that general was the only thing he took, and on taking it, he wept. As often as any of Pompey's friends and companions were taken by Ptolemy, wandering about the country, and brought to Cæsar, he loaded them with favours, and took them
in-

into his own service. He wrote to his friends at Rome, "That the chief enjoyment he had of his victory was, in saving every day one or other of his fellow-citizens, who had borne arms against him."

As for his Egyptian war, some assert that it was undertaken without necessity, and that his passion for Cleopatra engaged him in a quarrel, which proved both prejudicial to his reputation, and dangerous to his person. Others accuse the king's ministers, particularly the eunuch Photinus, who had the greatest influence at court, and who having taken off Pompey, and removed Cleopatra, privately meditated an attempt against Cæsar. Hence it is said, that Cæsar began to pass the night in entertainments among his friends, for the greater security of his person. The behaviour, indeed, of this eunuch in public, all he said and did with respect to Cæsar, was intolerably insolent and invidious. The corn he supplied his soldiers with was old and musty, and he told them, "they ought to be satisfied with it, since they lived at other people's cost." He caused only wooden and earthen vessels to be served up at the king's table, on pretence that Cæsar had taken all the gold and silver ones for debt. For the father of the reigning prince owed Cæsar seventeen million five hundred thousand *drachmas*. Cæsar had formerly remitted to his children the rest, but thought fit to demand the ten millions at this time, for the maintenance of his army. Photinus, instead of paying the money, advised him to go and finish the great affairs he had upon his hands, after which he should have his money with thanks. But Cæsar told him, "He had no need of Egyptian counsellors," and privately sent for Cleopatra out of the country.

This princess, taking only one friend, Apollodorus the Sicilian, with her, got into a small boat, and in the dusk of the evening made for the palace. As she saw it difficult to enter undiscovered, she rolled herself up in a carpet; Apollodorus tied her up at full length,

length, like a bale of goods, and carried her in at the gates to Cæsar. This stratagem of hers, which was a strong proof of her wit and ingenuity, is said to have first opened her the way to Cæsar's heart; and the conquest advanced so fast, by the charms of her conversation, that he took upon him to reconcile her brother to her, and insisted that she should reign with him.

An entertainment was given on account of this reconciliation, and all met to rejoice on the occasion; when a servant of Cæsar's, who was his barber, a timorous and suspicious man, led by his natural caution to enquire into every thing, and to listen everywhere about the palace, found that Achilles the general, and Photinus the eunuch, were plotting against Cæsar's life. Cæsar being informed of their design, planted his guards about the hall, and killed Photinus. But Achilles escaped to the army, and involved Cæsar in a very difficult and dangerous war; for with a few troops, he had to make head against a great city, and a powerful army.

The first difficulty he met with *, was, the want of water, the Egyptians having stopped up the aqueducts that supplied his quarter †. The second was, the loss of his ships in harbour, which he was forced to burn himself, to prevent their falling into the enemy's hands; when the flames unfortunately spreading from the dock to the palace, burnt the great Alexandrian library. The third ‡ was in the sea-fight near the isle of Pharos, when, seeing his men

* He was in great danger before, when attacked in the palace by Achilles, who had made himself master of Alexandria. *CÆs. Bell. Civil. lib. iii. sub finem.*

† They also contrived to raise the sea-water by engines, and pour it into Cæsar's reservoirs and cisterns; but Cæsar ordered wells to be dug, and, in a night's time, got a sufficient quantity of fresh water. *Vide CÆs. Bell. Alex.*

‡ First there was a general naval engagement; after which Cæsar attacked the island; and, last of all, the mole. It was in this last attack he was under the difficulty mentioned by Plutarch.

hard

hard pressed, he leaped from the mole into a little skiff, to go to their assistance. The Egyptians making up on all sides, he threw himself into the sea, and with much difficulty reached his galleys by swimming *. Having several valuable papers, which he was not willing either to lose or to wet, it is said he held them above water with one hand, and swam with the other. The skiff sunk soon after he left it. At last the king joining the insurgents, Cæsar attacked and defeated him. Great numbers of the Egyptians were slain, and the king was heard of no more. This gave Cæsar opportunity to establish Cleopatra queen of Egypt. Soon after, she had a son by him, whom the Alexandrians called Cæsarion.

He then departed for Syria, and from thence marched into Asia Minor, where he had intelligence that Domitius, whom he had left governor, was defeated by Pharnaces, son of Mithridates, and forced to fly out of Pontus with the few troops that he had left; and that Pharnaces, pursuing his advantage with great ardour, had made himself master of Bithynia and Cappadocia, and was attempting Armenia the Less, having stirred up all the kings and tetrarchs of Asia against the Romans. Cæsar immediately marched against him with three legions, and defeated him in a great battle near Zela, which deprived him of the kingdom of Pontus, as well as ruined his whole army. In the account he gave Amintius, one of his friends in Rome, of the rapidity and dispatch with which he gained this victory, he made use only of three words †, "I came, I saw, I conquered." Their having all the same form and termination in the Roman language, adds grace to their conciseness.

* His first intention was to gain the Admiral galley; but finding it very hard pressed, he made for the others. And it was fortunate for him that he did, for his own galley soon went to the bottom.

† *Veni, vidi, vici.*

After

After this extraordinary success, he returned to Italy, and arrived at Rome as the year of his second dictatorship, an office that had never been annual before, was on the point of expiring. He was declared consul for the year ensuing. But it was a blot in his character that he did not punish his troops, who in a tumult, had killed Cosconius and Galba, men of prætorian dignity, in any severer manner, than by calling them citizens*, instead of fellow-soldiers. Nay, he gave to each of them a thousand *drachmas* notwithstanding, and assigned them large portions of land in Italy. Other complaints against him arose from the madness of Dolabella, the avarice of Amintius, the drunkenness of Antony, and the insolence of Cornificius †, who, having got possession of Pompey's house, pulled it down, and rebuilt it, because he thought it not large enough for him. These things were very disagreeable to the Romans. Cæsar knew it, and disapproved such behaviour, but was obliged, through political views, to make use of such ministers.

Cato and Scipio, after the battle of Pharsalia, had escaped into Africa, where they raised a respectable army with the assistance of king Juba. Cæsar now resolved to carry war into their quarters, and in order to it, first crossed over to Sicily, though it was about the time of the winter solstice. To prevent his officers from entertaining any hopes of having the expedition delayed, he pitched his own tent almost within the wash of the sea; and a favourable wind springing up, he re-embarked with three thousand foot and a small

* But by this appellation they were cashiered. It was the tenth legion which had mutinied at Capua, and afterwards marched with great insolence to Rome. Cæsar readily gave them the discharge they demanded, which so humbled them, that they begged to be taken again into his service; and he did not admit of it without much seeming reluctance, nor till after much intreaty.

† It was Antony, not Cornificius, who got the forfeiture of Pompey's house; as appears from the life of Antony, and Cicero's second Philippic. Therefore, there is, probably, a transposition in this place, owing to the carelessness of some transcriber.

body of horse*. After he had landed them safely and privately on the African coast, he set sail again in quest of the remaining part of his troops, whose numbers were more considerable, and for whom he was under great concern. He found them, however, on their way at sea, and conducted them all to his African camp.

He was there informed, that the enemy had great dependence on an ancient oracle, the purport of which was, "That the race of Scipio would be always victorious in Africa." And, as he happened to have in his army one of the family of Africanus, named Scipio Sallution, though in other respects a contemptible fellow, either in ridicule of Scipio, the enemy's general, or to turn the oracle on his side, in all engagements he gave this Sallution the command, as if he had been really general. There were frequent occasions of this kind; for he was often forced to fight for provisions, having neither a sufficiency of bread for his men, nor of forage for his horses. He was obliged to give his horses the very sea-weed, only washing out the salt, and mixing a little grass with it to make it go down. The thing that laid him under a necessity of having recourse to this expedient, was the number of Numidian cavalry, who were extremely well mounted, and by swift and sudden impressions commanded the whole coast.

One day when Cæsar's cavalry had nothing else to do, they diverted themselves with an African who danced and played upon the flute with great perfection. They had left their horses to the care of boys, and sat attending to the entertainment with great delight, when the enemy coming upon them at once, killed part, and entered the camp with others, who fled with great precipitation. Had not Cæsar himself, and Asinius Pollio come to their assistance, and

* He embarked six legions, and two thousand horse; but the number mentioned by Plutarch was all that he landed with at first; many of the ships having been separated by a storm.

stopt their flight, the war would have been at an end that hour. In another engagement the enemy had the advantage again; on which occasion it was that Cæsar took an ensign, who was running away, by the neck, and making him face about, said, "Look on this side for the enemy."

Scipio, flushed with these successful preludes, was desirous to come to a decisive action. Therefore, leaving Afranius and Juba in their respective camps, which were at no great distance, he went in person to the camp above the lake, in the neighbourhood of Thapsus, to raise a fortification for a place of arms and an occasional retreat. While Scipio was constructing his walls and ramparts, Cæsar, with incredible dispatch, made his way through a country almost impracticable by reason of its woods and difficult passes, and coming suddenly upon him, attacked one part of his army in the rear, another in the front, and put the whole to flight. Then making the best use of his opportunity and of the favour of fortune, with one tide of success he took the camp of Afranius, and destroyed that of the Numidians; Juba, their king, being glad to save himself by flight. Thus in a small part of one day he made himself master of three camps, and killed fifty thousand of the enemy, with the loss only of fifty men.

Such is the account some give us of the action: others say, that as Cæsar was drawing up his army, and giving his orders, he had an attack of his old distemper; and that upon its approach, before it had overpowered and deprived him of his senses, as he felt the first agitations, he directed his people to carry him to a neighbouring tower, where he lay in quiet till the fit was over.

Many persons of consular and prætorian dignity escaped out of the battle. Some of them, being afterwards taken, dispatched themselves, and a number were put to death by Cæsar. Having a strong desire
to

to take Cato alive, the conqueror hastened to Utica*, which Cato had the charge of, and for that reason was not in the battle. But by the way he was informed that he had killed himself, and his uneasiness at the news was very visible. As his officers were wondering what might be the cause of that uneasiness, he cried out, "Cato, I envy thee thy death, since thou enviest me the glory of giving thee thy life." Nevertheless, by the book which he wrote against Cato after his death, it does not seem as if he had any intentions of favour to him before. For how can it be thought he would have spared the living enemy, when he poured so much venom afterwards upon his grave? Yet, from his clemency to Cicero, to Brutus, and others without number, who had borne arms against him, it is conjectured, that the book was not written out of a spirit of rancour, but of political ambition; for it was composed on such an occasion. Cicero had written an encomium upon Cato, and he gave the name of *Cato* to the book. It was highly esteemed by many of the Romans, as might be expected, as well from the superior eloquence of the author, as the dignity of the subject. Cæsar was piqued at the success of a work, which, in praising a man who had killed himself to avoid falling into his hands, he thought insinuated something to the disadvantage of his character. He therefore wrote an answer to it, which he called *Anti-Cato*, and which contained a variety of charges against that great man. Both books have still their friends, as a regard to the memory of Cæsar or of Cato predominates.

Cæsar, after his return from Africa to Rome, spoke in high terms of his victory to the people. He told

* Before Cæsar left Utica, he gave orders for the rebuilding of Carthage, as he did, soon after his return to Italy, for the rebuilding of Corinth; so that these two cities were destroyed in the same year, and in the same year raised out of their ruins, in which they had laid about a hundred years. Two years after, they were both re-peopled with Roman colonies.

them,

them, he had subdued a country so extensive, that it would bring yearly into the public stores two hundred thousand Attic * measures of wheat, and three million of pounds of oil. After this, he led up his several triumphs, over Egypt, Pontus, and Africa †. In the title of the latter, mention was not made of Scipio, but of Juba only. Juba, the son of that prince, then very young, walked in the procession. It proved a happy captivity for him; for of a barbarous and unlettered Numidian, he became an historian worthy to be numbered among the most learned of Greece. The triumph was followed by large donations to the soldiers, and feasts and public diversions for the people. He entertained them at twenty-two thousand tables, and presented them with a numerous show of gladiators and naval fights, in honour of his daughter Julia, who had been long dead.

When those exhibitions were over †, an account was taken of the citizens, who, from three hundred and twenty

* *Medimni*. See the table of weights and measures.

† Plutarch either forgot to make mention of the triumph over Gaul, which was the most considerable, or else τῶν Καλιῶν has dropt out of the text.

‡ Ruault takes notice of three great mistakes in this passage. The first is, where it is said that Cæsar took a *census* of the people. Suetonius does not mention it, and Augustus himself, in the *Marmora Ancyrana*, says, that in his sixth consulate, that is, in the year of Rome 725, he numbered the people, which had not been done for forty-two years before. The second is, that, before the civil wars broke out between Cæsar and Pompey, the number of the people in Rome amounted to no more than three hundred and twenty thousand; for long before that it was much greater, and had continued upon the increase. The last is, where it is asserted, that, in less than three years, those three hundred and twenty thousand were reduced, by that war, to a hundred and fifty thousand; the falsity of which assertion is evident from this, that a little while after, Cæsar made a draught of eighty thousand, to be sent to foreign colonies. But what is still stronger, eighteen years after, Augustus took an account of the people, and found the number amount to four millions and sixty-three thousand, as Suetonius assures us. From a passage in the same author (*Life of Cæsar*, chap. iv.) these mistakes of Plutarch took their

twenty thousand, were reduced to a hundred and fifty thousand. So fatal a calamity was the civil war, and such a number of the people did it take off, to say nothing of the misfortunes it brought upon the rest of Italy, and all the provinces of the empire.

This business done, he was elected consul the fourth time; and the first thing he undertook, was to march into Spain against the sons of Pompey, who, though young, had assembled a numerous army, and shewed a courage worthy the command they had undertaken. The great battle which put a period to that war, was fought under the walls of Munda. Cæsar at first saw his men so hard prest, and making so feeble a resistance, that he ran through the ranks, amidst the swords and spears, crying, "Are you not ashamed to deliver your general into the hands of boys?" The great and vigorous efforts this reproach produced, at last made the enemy turn their backs, and there were more than thirty thousand of them slain, whereas Cæsar lost only a thousand, but those were some of the best men he had. As he retired after the battle, he told his friends, "He had often fought for victory, but that was the first time he had fought for his life."

He won this battle on the day of the *Liberalia* *, which was the same day that Pompey the Great marched out, four years before. The younger of Pompey's sons made his escape; the other was taken by Didius, a few days after, who brought his head to Cæsar.

rife. Suetonius there says, Recensum populi nec more nec loco solito, sed vicatim per domos insularum e, it: atque ex viginti trecentisque millibus accipientium frumentum e publico, ad centum quinquaginta retraxit. Suetonius speaks there of the citizens, who shared in the public corn, whom he found to amount to three hundred and twenty thousand, and, probably, because he perceived that distribution answered in many only the purposes of idleness, he reduced the number to a hundred and twenty thousand. Plutarch mistook *recensum* for *censum*; and this error led him into the other mistakes.

* The seventeenth of March.

This

This was the last of his wars; and his triumph on account of it gave the Romans more pain than any other step he had taken. He did not now mount the car for having conquered foreign generals, or barbarian kings, but for ruining the children, and destroying the race of one of the greatest men Rome had ever produced, though he proved at last unfortunate. All the world condemned his triumphing in the calamities of his country, and rejoicing in things which nothing could excuse, either before the gods or men, but extreme necessity. And it was the more obvious to condemn it, because, before this, he had never sent any messenger or letter to acquaint the public with any victory he had gained in the civil wars, but was rather ashamed of such advantages. The Romans, however, bowing to his power, and submitting to the bridle, because they saw no other respite from intestine wars and miseries, but the taking one man for their master, created him dictator for life. This was a complete tyranny; for to absolute power they added perpetuity.

Cicero was the first who proposed that the senate should confer great honours upon Cæsar, but honours within the measure of humanity. Those who followed, contended with each other which should make him the most extraordinary compliments, and by the absurdity and extravagance of their decrees, rendered him odious and insupportable even to persons of candour. His enemies are supposed to vie with his flatterers in these sacrifices, that they might have the better pretence, and the more cause, to lift up their hands against him. This is probable enough, because in other respects, after the civil wars were brought to an end, his conduct was irreproachable. It seems as if there was nothing unreasonable in their ordering a temple to be built to CLEMENCY, in gratitude for the mercy they had experienced in Cæsar. For he not only pardoned most of those who had appeared against him in the field, but on some of them he bestowed

honours and preferments; on Brutus and Cassius for instance; for they were both prætors. The statues of Pompey had been thrown down, but he did not suffer them to lie in that posture; he erected them again. On which occasion Cicero said, "That Cæsar, by rearing Pompey's statues, had established his own."

His friends pressed him to have a guard, and many offered to serve in that capacity, but he would not suffer it. For he said, "It was better to die once, than to live always in fear of death." He esteemed the affection of the people the most honourable and the safest guard, and therefore endeavoured to gain them by feasts and distributions of corn, as he did the soldiers, by placing them in agreeable colonies. The most noted places that he colonized, were Carthage and Corinth; of which it is remarkable, that as they were both taken and demolished at the same time, so they were at the same time restored.

The nobility he gained by promising them consulates and prætorships, or, if those were engaged, by giving them other places of honour and profit. To all he opened the prospects of hope; for he was desirous to reign over a willing people. For this reason he was so studious to oblige, that when Fabius Maximus died suddenly towards the close of his consulship, he appointed Caninius Rebilus * consul for the day that remained. Numbers went to pay their respects to him, according to custom, and to conduct him to the senate-house; on which occasion Cicero said, "Let us make haste and pay our compliments to the consul, before his office is expired."

Cæsar had such talents for great attempts, and so vast an ambition, that the many actions he had performed by no means induced him to sit down and enjoy the glory he had acquired; they rather whetted his appetite for other conquests, produced new designs equally great, together with equal confidence of success, and inspired him with a passion for fresh renown,

* Macrobius calls him *Rebilus*.

as if he had exhausted all the pleasures of the old.— This passion was nothing but a jealousy of himself, a contest with himself (as eager as if it had been with another man) to make his future achievements outshine the past. In this spirit he had formed a design, and was making preparations for war against the Parthians. After he had subdued them, he intended to traverse Hyrcania, and marching along by the Caspian sea and Mount Caucasus, to enter Scythia; to carry his conquering arms through the countries adjoining to Germany, and through Germany itself; and then to return by Gaul to Rome; thus finishing the circle of the Roman empire, as well as extending its bounds to the ocean on every side.

During the preparations for this expedition, he attempted to dig through the Isthmus of Corinth, and committed the care of that work to Anienus*. He designed also to convey the Tiber by a deep channel directly from Rome to Circæi, and so into the sea near Tarracina, for the convenience as well as security of merchants who traded to Rome. Another public-spirited work that he meditated, was to drain all the

* *Ἀνιένος ἐπὶ τούτῳ προχειρισάμενος.* The Latin and French translators join this with the sentence that follows, and render it, "He designed also to unite the Anio and the Tiber, and convey them by a deep channel directly from Rome to Circæi, &c." But against that construction there is this strong objection, that the Anio falls into the Tiber above Rome. In Greek, too, that river would be *Ἄνιος*, not *Ἀνιένος*. And if we admitted of that construction, what could be made of *Ἀνιένος ἐπὶ τούτῳ προχειρισάμενος*, which would literally be, *having previously fitted the Anio to that purpose.*

On the other hand, it may be alleged, that possibly Plutarch might not know where the conflux of the Anio and the Tiber was, though, with respect to a man who had lived some time at Rome, it is scarce an admissible supposition. And we must acknowledge, that we have not any where else met with *Anienus* as a Roman name.

Suetonius takes no notice of Cæsar's intention to make this cut.

marshes by Nomentum * and Setia, by which ground enough would be gained from the water to employ many thousands of hands in tillage. He proposed farther to raise banks on the shore nearest Rome, to prevent the sea from breaking in upon the land; to clear the Ostian shore of its secret and dangerous obstructions, and to build harbours fit to receive the many vessels that came in there. These things were designed, but did not take effect.

He completed, however, the regulation of the calendar, and corrected the erroneous computation of time†, agreeably to a plan which he had ingeniously contrived, and which proved of the greatest utility. For it was not only in ancient times that the Roman months so ill agreed with the revolution of the year, that the festivals and days of sacrifice by little and little fell back into seasons quite opposite to those of their institution; but even in the time of Cæsar, when the solar year was made use of, the generality lived in perfect ignorance of the matter; and the priests, who were the only persons that knew any thing about it, used to add all at once, and when nobody expected it, an intercalary month, called *Mercedonius*, of which Numa was the inventor. That remedy, however, proved much too weak, and was far from operating extensively enough, to correct the great miscomputations of time; as we have observed in that prince's life.

Cæsar having proposed the question to the most able philosophers and mathematicians, published, upon principles already verified, a new and more exact regu-

* It appears from a passage in Suetonius, Vit. Cæs. c. 44. *Siccare Pomptinas paludes*, as well as from another in Strabo, Ed. Par. l. v. p. 231. C. D. that for *nomentum* we should here read *pomentium*.

† Through means of that erroneous computation, the Roman calendar had gained near three months in the time of Cæsar. Before this, endeavours had been used to correct the irregularity, but it never could be done with exactness. See the Life of Numa.

lation, which the Romans still go by, and by that means are nearer the truth than other nations with respect to the difference between the sun's revolution and that of the twelve months. Yet this useful invention furnished matter of ridicule to the envious, and to those who could but ill brook his power. For Cicero (if I mistake not) when some one happened to say, "*Lyra* will rise to-morrow," answered, "Undoubtedly; there is an edict for it:" As if the calendar was forced upon them, as well as other things.

But the principal thing that excited the public hatred, and at last caused his death, was his passion for the title of king. It was the first thing that gave offence to the multitude, and it afforded his inveterate enemies a very plausible plea. Those who wanted to procure him that honour, gave it out among the people, that it appeared from the Sibylline books, "The Romans could never conquer the Parthians, except they went to war under the conduct of a king." And one day, when Cæsar returned from Alba to Rome, some of his retainers ventured to salute him by that title. Observing that the people were troubled at this strange compliment, he put on an air of resentment, and said, "He was not called king, but Cæsar." Upon this, a deep silence ensued, and he passed on in no good humour.

Another time the senate having decreed him some extravagant honours, the consuls and prætors, attended by the whole body of patricians, went to inform him of what they had done. When they came, he did not rise to receive them, but kept his seat, as if they had been persons in a private station, and his answer to their address, was, "That there was more need to trench his honours, than to enlarge them." This haughtiness gave pain not only to the senate, but the people, who thought this contempt of that body reflected dishonour upon the whole commonwealth; for all who could decently withdraw, went off greatly dejected.

Perceiving the false step he had taken, he retired immediately to his own house, and laying his neck bare, told his friends, "He was ready for the first hand that would strike." He then bethought himself of alleging his distemper as an excuse; and asserted that those who are under its influence are apt to find their faculties fail them, when they speak standing; a trembling and giddiness coming upon them, which bereaves them of their senses. This, however, was not really the case; for it is said, he was desirous to rise to the senate; but Cornelius Balbus, one of his friends, or rather flatterers, held him, and had fervility enough to say, "Will you not remember that you are Cæsar, and suffer them to pay their court to you as their superior?"

These discontents were greatly increased by the indignity with which he treated the tribunes of the people. In the *Lupercalia*, which, according to most writers, is an ancient pastoral feast, and which answers in many respects to the *Lycæa* amongst the Arcadians, young men of noble families, and indeed many of the magistrates, run about the streets naked, and by way of diversion, strike all they meet with leathern thongs having the hair upon them. Numbers of women of the first quality put themselves in their way, and present their hands for stripes (as scholars do to a master), being persuaded that the pregnant gain an easy delivery by it, and that the barren are enabled to conceive. Cæsar wore a triumphal robe that day, and seated himself in a golden chair upon the *rostra*, to see the ceremony.

Antony ran amongst the rest, in compliance with the rules of the festival, for he was consul. When he came into the *Forum*, and the crowd had made way for him, he approached Cæsar, and offered him a diadem wreathed with laurel. Upon this, some plaudits were heard, but very feeble, because they proceeded only from persons placed there on purpose. Cæsar refused it, and then the plaudits were loud and general. Antony

tony presented it once more, and few applauded his officiousness; but when Cæsar rejected it again, the applause again was general. Cæsar, undeceived by this second trial, rose up, and ordered the diadem to be consecrated in the capitol.

A few days after, his statues were seen adorned with royal diadems; and Flavius and Marullus, two of the tribunes, went and tore them off. They also found out the persons who first saluted Cæsar king, and committed them to prison. The people followed with cheerful acclamations, and called them *Brutus*, because Brutus was the man who expelled the kings, and put the government in the hands of the senate and people. Cæsar, highly incensed at their behaviour, deposed the tribunes; and by way of reprimand to them, as well as insult to the people, called them several times *Brutes* and *Cumæans* *.

Upon this, many applied to Marcus Brutus, who, by the father's side, was supposed to be a descendant of that ancient Brutus, and whose mother was of the illustrious house of the Servilii. He was also nephew and son-in-law to Cato. No man was more inclined than he to lift his hand against monarchy, but he was withheld by the honours and favours he had received from Cæsar, who had not only given him his life after the defeat of Pompey at Pharsalia, and pardoned many of his friends at his request, but continued to honour him with his confidence. That very year he had

* One thing which Strabo mentions as an instance of the stupidity of the Cumæans, namely, their not laying any duty upon merchandize imported into their harbour, seems to be a very equivocal proof of it: for their leaving the port free, might bring them trade, and make them a flourishing people. Another thing which he mentions (though it is scarce worth repeating) is, that they had mortgaged their porticos, and, upon failure of payment of the money, were prohibited by their creditors from walking under them; but at last, when some heavy rains came on, public notice was given by the creditors, that their debtors would be indulged that favour. Hence, he tells us, is that saying, "The Cumæans have not sense to get under shelter when it rains, till they are put in mind of it by the cryer."

procured

procured him the most honourable prætorship, and he had named him for the consulship four years after, in preference to Cassius, who was his competitor.— On which occasion Cæsar is reported to have said, “ Cassius assigns the strongest reasons, but I cannot refuse Brutus.”

Some impeached Brutus, after the conspiracy was formed; but, instead of listening to them, he laid his hand on his body, and said, “ Brutus will wait for this skin;” intimating, that, though the virtue of Brutus rendered him worthy of empire, he would not be guilty of any ingratitude or baseness to obtain it. Those, however, who were desirous of a change, kept their eyes upon him only, or principally at least; and as they durst not speak out plain, they put billets night after night in the tribunal and seat which he used as prætor, mostly in these terms, “ Thou sleepest, Brutus;” or, “ Thou art not Brutus.”

Cassius perceiving his friend's ambition a little stimulated by these papers, began to ply him closer than before, and spur him on to the great enterprize; for he had a particular enmity against Cæsar, for the reasons which we have mentioned in the life of Brutus. Cæsar, too, had some suspicion of him, and he even said one day to his friends, “ What think you of Cassius? I do not like his pale looks.” Another time, when Antony and Dolabella were accused of some designs against his person and government, he said, “ I have no apprehensions from those fat and sleek men; I rather fear the pale and lean ones;” meaning Cassius and Brutus.

It seems, from this instance, that fate is not so secret, as it is inevitable. For we are told, there were strong signs and presages of the death of Cæsar. As to the lights in the heavens, the strange noises * heard in various quarters by night, and the appearance of solitary

* With some of the manuscripts, we read ΚΤΥΠΟΥΣ *ὡς* πικρὰ λαχὺν διαφρομεύεις. If the common reading, ΤΥΠΟΥΣ, κ. τ. λ. be preferred, the sense will be, *the spectres seen swimming about in the night.*

birds

birds in the *Forum*, perhaps they deserve not our notice in so great an event as this. But some attention should be given to Strabo the philosopher. According to him, there were seen in the air men of fire encountering each other; such a flame appeared to issue from the hand of a soldier's servant, that all the spectators thought it must be burnt, yet, when it was over, he found no harm; and one of the victims which Cæsar offered, was found without a heart.—The latter was certainly a most alarming prodigy; for, according to the rules of nature, no creature can exist without a heart. What is still more extraordinary, many report, that a certain soothsayer forewarned him of a great danger which threatened him on the ides of March, and that when the day was come, as he was going to the senate-house, he called to the soothsayer, and said, laughing, "The ides of March are come;" to which he answered softly, "Yes; but they are not gone."

The evening before, he supped with Marcus Lepidus, and signed, according to custom, a number of letters, as he sat at table. While he was so employed, there arose a question, "What kind of death was the best?" and Cæsar answering before them all, cried out, "A sudden one." The same night, as he was in bed with his wife, the doors and windows of the room flew open at once. Disturbed both with the noise and the light, he observed, by moon-shine, Calpurnia in a deep sleep, uttering broken words and inarticulate groans. She dreamed that she was weeping over him, as she held him, murdered, in her arms. Others say, she dreamed that the pinnacle * was fallen, which, as Livy tells us, the senate had ordered to be erected upon Cæsar's house, by way of ornament and distinction; and that it was the fall of it which she lamented and wept for. Be that as it may, next morning she

* The pinnacle was an ornament usually placed upon the top of their temples, and was commonly adorned with some statues of their gods, figures of victory, or other symbolical device.

conjured

conjured Cæsar not to go out that day, if he could possibly avoid it, but to adjourn the senate; and, if he paid no regard to her dreams, to have recourse to some other species of divination, or to sacrifices, for information as to his fate. This gave him some suspicion and alarm; for he had never known before, in Calpurnia, any thing of the weakness or superstition of her sex, though she was now so much affected.

He therefore offered a number of sacrifices, and, as the diviners found no auspicious tokens in any of them, he sent Antony to dismiss the senate. In the mean time, Decius Brutus*, surnamed Albinus, came in. He was a person in whom Cæsar placed such confidence, that he had appointed him his second heir, yet was he engaged in the conspiracy with the other Brutus and Cassius. This man, fearing that if Cæsar adjourned the senate to another day the affair might be discovered, laughed at the diviners, and told Cæsar he would be highly to blame, if, by such a slight, he gave the senate an occasion of complaint against him. "For they were met," he said, "at his summons, and came prepared with one voice to honour him with the title of king in the provinces, and to grant that he should wear the diadem both by land and sea every where out of Italy. But if any one go and tell them, now they have taken their places, they must go home again, and return when Calpurnia happens to have better dreams, what room will your enemies have to launch out against you? Or, who will hear your friends, when they attempt to shew, that this is not an open servitude on the one hand, and tyranny on the other? If you are absolutely persuaded that this is an unlucky day, it is certainly better to go yourself, and tell them you have strong reasons for putting off business till another time." So saying, he took Cæsar by the hand, and led him out.

* Plutarch finding a *D* prefixed to Brutus, took it for *Decius*; but his name was *Decimus* Brutus. See Appian and Suetonius.

He

He was not gone far from the door, when a slave, who belonged to some other person, attempted to get up to speak to him, but finding it impossible, by reason of the crowd that was about him, he made his way into the house, and putting himself into the hands of Calpurnia, desired her to keep him safe till Cæsar's return, because he had matters of great importance to communicate.

Artemidorus the Cnidian, who, by teaching the Greek eloquence, became acquainted with some of Brutus's friends, and had gotten intelligence of most of the transactions, approached Cæsar with a paper, explaining what he had to discover. Observing that he gave the papers, as fast as he received them, to his officers, he got up as close as possible, and said, "Cæsar, read this to yourself and quickly; for it contains matters of great consequence, and of the last concern to you." He took it, and attempted several times to read it, but was always prevented by one application or other. He therefore kept that paper, and that only in his hand, when he entered the house. Some say, it was delivered to him by another man. Artemidorus being kept from approaching him all the way by the crowd.

These things might, indeed, fall out by chance; but as in the place where the senate was that day assembled, and which proved the scene of that tragedy, there was a statue of Pompey, and it was an edifice which Pompey had consecrated for an ornament to his theatre, nothing can be clearer than that some deity conducted the whole business, and directed the execution of it to that very spot. Even Cassius himself, though inclined to the doctrines of Epicurus, turned his eye to the statue of Pompey, and secretly invoked his aid, before the great attempt. The arduous occasion, it seems, over-ruled his former sentiments, and laid him open to all the influence of enthusiasm. Antony, who was a faithful friend to Cæsar, and a man of great strength, was held in discourse without by
Brutus

Brutus Albinus *, who had contrived a long story to detain him.

When Cæsar entered the house, the senate rose to do him honour. Some of Brutus's accomplices came up behind his chair, and others before it, pretending to intercede, along with Metilius Cimber †, for the recal of his brother from exile. They continued their instances till he came to his seat. When he was seated, he gave them a positive denial; and as they continued their importunities with an air of compulsion, he grew angry. Cimber † then with both hands pulled his gown off his neck, which was the signal for the attack. Casca gave him the first blow. It was a stroke upon the neck with his sword, but the wound was not dangerous; for in the beginning of so tremendous an enterprize he was probably in some disorder. Cæsar therefore turned upon him, and laid hold of his sword. At the same time they both cried out, the one in Latin, "Villain! Casca! what dost thou mean?" and the other in Greek, to his brother, "Brother, help!"

After such a beginning those who knew nothing of the conspiracy were seized with consternation and horror, insomuch that they durst neither fly, nor assist, nor even utter a word. All the conspirators now drew their swords, and surrounded him in such a manner, that, whatever way he turned, he saw nothing but steel gleaming in his face, and met nothing but wounds. Like some savage beast attacked by the hunters, he found every hand lifted against him, for they had all agreed to have a share in the sacrifice and

* By Caius Trebonius. So Plutarch says, in the life of Brutus; Appian says the same; and Cicero too, in his second Philippic.

† *Metilius* is plainly a corruption. Suetonius calls him *Cimber Tullius*. In Appian he is named *Atilius Cimber*, and there is a medal which bears that name; but that medal is believed to be spurious. Some call him Metellus Cimber; and others suppose we should read *M. Tullius Cimber*.

‡ Here in the original it is *Metilius* again.

a taste of his blood. Therefore Brutus himself gave him a stroke in the groin. Some say, he opposed the rest, and continued struggling and crying out, till he perceived the sword of Brutus; then he drew his robe over his face, and yielded to his fate. Either by accident, or pushed thither by the conspirators, he expired on the pedestal of Pompey's statue, and dyed it with his blood; so that Pompey seemed to preside over the work of vengeance, to tread his enemy under his feet, and to enjoy his agonies. Those agonies were great, for he received no less than three-and-twenty wounds. And many of the conspirators wounded each other, as they were aiming their blows at him.

Cæsar thus dispatched, Brutus advanced to speak to the senate, and to assign his reasons for what he had done, but they could not bear to hear him; they fled out of the house, and filled the people with inexpresible horror and dismay. Some shut up their houses; others left their shops and counters. All were in motion: one was running to see the spectacle; another running back. Antony and Lepidus, Cæsar's principal friends, withdrew, and hid themselves in other people's houses. Meantime Brutus and his confederates, yet warm from the slaughter, marched in a body, with their bloody swords in their hands, from the senate house to the capitol, not like men that fled, but with an air of gaiety and confidence, calling the people to liberty, and stopping to talk with every man of consequence whom they met. There were some who even joined them, and mingled with their train; desirous of appearing to have had a share in the action, and hoping for one in the glory. Of this number, were Caius Octavius and Lentulus Spinther, who afterwards paid dear for their vanity; being put to death by Antony and young Cæsar. So that they gained not even the honour for which they lost their lives; for nobody believed that they had any part in the enterprize; and they were punished, not for the deed, but for the will.

Next

Next day, Brutus, and the rest of the conspirators came down from the capitol, and addressed the people, who attended to their discourse, without expressing either dislike or approbation of what was done. But by their silence it appeared that they pitied Cæsar, at the same time that they revered Brutus. The senate passed a general amnesty, and, to reconcile all parties, they decreed Cæsar divine honours, and confirmed all the acts of his dictatorship; while on Brutus and his friends they bestowed governments, and such honours as were suitable: So that it was generally imagined the commonwealth was firmly established again, and all brought into the best order.

But when, upon the opening of Cæsar's will, it was found that he had left every Roman citizen a considerable legacy, and they beheld the body, as it was carried through the *Forum*, all mangled with wounds, the multitude could no longer be kept within bounds. They stopt the procession, and tearing up the benches, with the doors and tables, heaped them into a pile, and burnt the corpse there. Then snatching flaming brands from the pile, some ran to burn the houses of the assassins, while others ranged the city, to find the conspirators themselves, and tear them in pieces; but they had taken such care to secure themselves, that they could not meet with one of them.

One Cinna, a friend of Cæsar's, had a strange dream the preceding night. He dreamed (as they tell us) that Cæsar invited him to supper, and, upon his refusal to go, caught him by the hand, and drew him after him, in spite of all the resistance he could make. Hearing, however, that the body of Cæsar was to be burnt in the *Forum*, he went to assist in doing him the last honours, though he had a fever upon him, the consequence of his uneasiness about his dream. On his coming up, one of the populace asked, "Who that was?" and having learned his name, told it his next neighbour. A report immediately spread through
the

the whole company, that it was one of Cæsar's murderers; and, indeed, one of the conspirators was named Cinna. The multitude taking this for the man, fell upon him, and tore him to pieces upon the spot. Brutus and Cassius were so terrified at this rage of the populace, that, a few days after, they left the city. An account of their subsequent actions, sufferings, and death, may be found in the life of Brutus.

Cæsar died at the age of fifty-six, and did not survive Pompey above four years. His object was sovereign power and authority, which he pursued through innumerable dangers, and by prodigious efforts he gained it at last. But he reaped no other fruits from it than an empty and an invidious title. It is true, the divine power which conducted him through life, attended him after his death as his avenger, pursued and hunted out the assassins over sea and land, and rested not till there was not a man left, either of those who dipt their hands in his blood, or of those who gave their sanction to the deed.

The most remarkable of natural events relative to this affair, was, that Cassius, after he had lost the battle of Philippi, killed himself with the same dagger which he had made use of against Cæsar; and the most signal phenomenon in the heavens was that of a great comet*, which shone very bright for seven nights after Cæsar's death, and then disappeared. To which we may add the fading of the sun's lustre; for his orb looked pale all that year; he rose not with a sparkling radiance, nor had the heat he afforded its usual strength. The air, of course, was dark and heavy, for want of that vigorous heat which clears and

* " A comet made its appearance in the north, while we were celebrating the games in honour of Cæsar, and shone bright for seven days. It arose about the eleventh hour of the day, and was seen by all nations. It was commonly believed to be a sign that the soul of Cæsar was admitted among the gods; for which reason we added a star to the head of his statue consecrated soon after in the *Forum*."

Fragn. AUG. CÆS. ap. Plin. l. ii. c. 25.

rarefies it; and the fruits were so erude, and uncooked, that they pined away and decayed, through the chilliness of the atmosphere.

We have a proof still more striking, that the assassination of Cæsar was displeasing to the gods, in the phantom that appeared to Brutus. The story of it is this: Brutus was on the point of transporting his army from Abydos to the opposite continent; and the night before he lay in his tent, awake, according to custom, and in deep thought about what might be the event of the war; for it was natural to him to watch great part of the night, and no general ever required so little sleep. With all his senses about him, he heard a noise at the door of his tent, and looking towards the light, which was now burnt very low, he saw a terrible appearance in the human form, but of prodigious stature, and the most hideous aspect. At first he was struck with astonishment; but when he saw it neither did nor spoke any thing to him, but stood in silence by his bed, he asked "who it was?" The spectre answered, "I am thy evil genius, Brutus; thou shalt see me at Philippi." Brutus answered boldly, "I'll meet thee there;" and the spectre immediately vanished.

Some time after, he engaged Antony and Octavius Cæsar at Philippi, and the first day was victorious, carrying all before him where he fought in person, and even pillaged Cæsar's camp. The night before he was to fight the second battle, the same spectre appeared to him again, but spoke not a word. Brutus, however, understood that his last hour was near, and courted danger with all the violence of despair. Yet he did not fall in the action; but seeing all lost, he retired to the top of a rock, where he presented his naked sword to his breast, and a friend, as they tell us, assisting the thrust, he died upon the spot*.

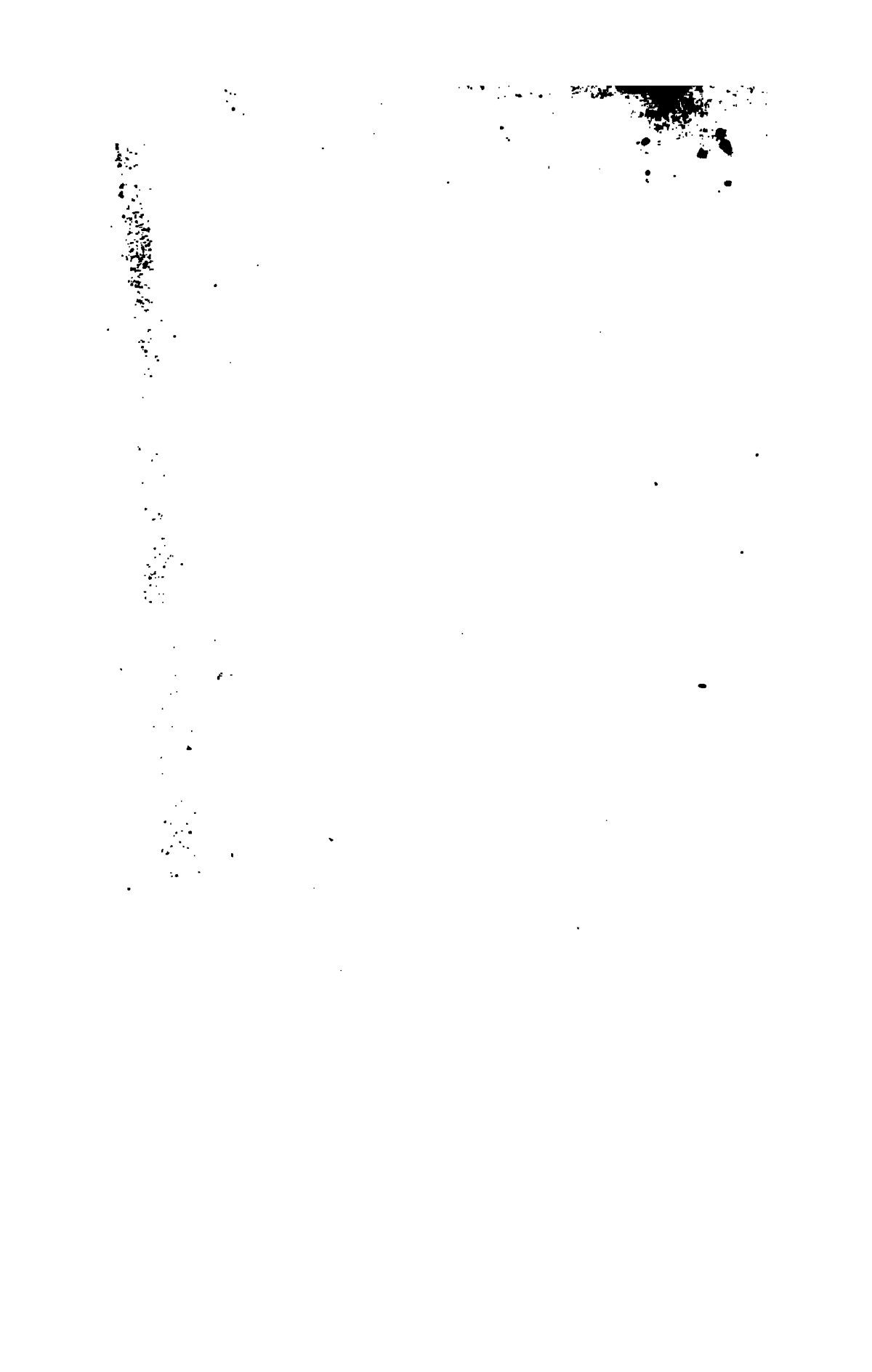
* Whatever Plutarch's motive may have been, it is certain that he has given us a very inadequate and imperfect idea of the character of Cæsar. The life he has written is a confused jumble of facts

facts snatched from different historians, without order, consistency, regularity, or accuracy. He has left us none of those finer and minuter traits, which, as he elsewhere justly observes, distinguish and characterise the man more than his most popular and splendid operations. He has written the life of Cæsar like a man under restraint; has skimmed over his actions, and shewn a manifest satisfaction when he could draw the attention of the reader to other characters and circumstances, however insignificant, or how often soever repeated by himself in the narrative of other lives. Yet from the little light he has afforded us, and from the better accounts of other historians, we may easily discover, that Cæsar was a man of great and distinguished virtues. Had he been as able in his political as he was in his military capacity, had he been capable of hiding, or even of managing that openness of mind, which was the connate attendant of his liberality and ambition, the last prevailing passion would not have blinded him so far, as to put so early a period to his race of glory.

END OF THE FOURTH VOLUME.









<p>CECIL H. GREEN LIBRARY STANFORD UNIVERSITY LIBRARIES STANFORD, CALIFORNIA 94305-6004 (650) 723-1493 gncirc@sulmail.stanford.edu All books are subject to recall.</p>	
<p>DATE DUE</p>	
<p><i>JUN 9 2004</i> MAY 09 2004</p>	

